THE ESSENTIALS OF OUR LANGUAGE

A Guide to Accuracy in the Use of the English Language

THE ESSENTIALS OF OUR LANGUAGE

A Guide to Accuracy in the Use of the English Language

BY

GEORGE W. RINE, B. L.

"To acquire a few tongues," says a French writer, "is the task of a few years; but to be eloquent in one is the labor of a life."
—COLTON.

"Let him who would rightly understand the grandeur and dignity of speech, meditate on the deep mystery involved in the revelation of the Lord Jesus as the Word of God." —FARRAR.

PACIFIC PRESS PUBLISHING CO.
OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA
San Francisco Kansas City New York

PREFATORY NOTE.

This book has been written with a special view to the needs of that large number of young and middle-aged persons who, unable to attend school, are yet desirous of mastering the essentials of good English. It has been planned for the convenience of all who, in default of schools and teachers, are willing to teach themselves. It is assumed that the learner has a fair knowledge of elementary English grammar. The practical principles of grammar, which need the emphasis of iteration, have been set forth and exemplified under the title, "Slips in Syntax." The nature and aim of each chapter are stated in the introduction thereto.

The book is likewise adapted to the requirements of such school classes as have finished the study of English grammar, but are not prepared to begin the study of formal rhetoric. I believe that this work will serve as a natural transition from the former to the latter of these two branches of English. The chapter entitled "Learning by Doing" was compiled with special reference to the needs of that grade of pupils.

The book, being replete with illustrative matter, will serve as a convenient side-help to teachers of grammar and practical rhetoric. It contains much that will prove helpful for purposes of further emphasizing, illustrating, and varying the facts enunciated in the regular text-book.

The student will not find himself embarrassed with needless rules and directions, which mar so many otherwise good text-books on English. Much that is usually given in rules may be safely left to the judgment of the teacher and to the common sense of the student.

Professor Meiklejohn's advice to teachers of secondary English is so timely that I insert it here: "The teacher is earnestly advised to discourage and even to forbid long dissertations and lengthy essays, which absorb too much of the teacher's time, and promote in the pupil habits of verbosity and loose writing. A short exercise of ten lines, carefully and thoroughly polished, will do more for the pupil than a wordy essay of as many pages. Once he has been shown the way, it is the pupil who ought to do the polishing, and not the teacher."

It is really not very important as to the order in which the Parts of this work are studied. Parts I and II might be studied together. A part of the matter for a lesson might be taken from the one and a part from the other. The Part treating of synonyms may be taken up in connection with any or all of the other Parts. The teacher will determine matters of this kind by the circumstances of her class. The requirements under "Learning by Doing" should, of course, be distributed over the entire time required to complete the book. One or two recitations each week may be devoted to work there prescribed.

GEORGE W. RINE.

Jan. 1, 1902.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PART I.

ACCURACY IN THE USE OF WORDS.

One has gone a long distance in the direction of attaining proficiency in the use of his mother tongue, when he has mastered the art of using words and phrases with propriety and precision. It is only persons of culture and of extended experience in literary effort who seldom make mistakes in the use of words.

The object of Part I. is to afford the student one of the means necessary to the mastering of the art of verbal precision. I must remind the student, however, that tact and discrimination in the use of words can not be acquired unless he thoroughly and sympathetically study at least a few—the more the better—of the masterpieces of English literature. Nothing can take the place of a sympathetic acquaintance with the artistic diction exemplified in classic English.

I shall now point out and illustrate the correct use of a somewhat long list of words and phrases that are commonly misused:—

Abortive is a word often misused in the sense of unsuccessful; as, "He made an *abortive* attempt to deceive me." That which is untimely, premature, or brought forth too early is abortive. Hence, the use of *abortive* for unsuccessful is permissible only when the failure to

succeed is owing to the effort being made too soon, before the circumstances warrant.

The most careful writers do not use **above** as an adjective or as a noun. It is better to say, the *aforesaid,* or *foregoing,* or *preceding* explanation, than the *above* explanation. The use of such locutions as *above mentioned* and *above referred to* has the sanction of the best writers.

Another unwarranted use of *above* is to make it serve for *more than;* as, "above a hundred," "above a mile." "The giant was not *above* [*more than*] six and a half feet tall."

Accept of is a phrase to the use of which many are addicted. There is no reason whatever for inserting *of* after *accept.* One *accepts* an offer, but does not *accept of* an offer.

Medicine, oaths, governments, and affairs of state generally, are **administered**; but a blow is *dealt,* an insult is *offered.* A New York paper recently reported that "Carson died from a blow *administered* [*dealt*] by a policeman."

Scholarly persons do not use **aggravate** when they mean irritate, annoy, or provoke. "By her continual fault-finding the teacher *aggravated* [say *irritated*] her pupils." He is easily *aggravated* [say *provoked*]. To aggravate means to intensify, to heighten, or to make worse, that which is already bad, painful, or undesirable. It is correctly used in the following sentences: "The continuous din and roar of the street *aggravates* the patient's suffering." "By adding falsehood to theft the boy *aggravated* his guilt." "One effect of the appearance of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' was to *aggravate* the bitterness that

the slave-owner cherished toward the abolitionist of the North."

To use **agree** as a synonym of *admit* is a gross impropriety. Thus, "I *agree* [*admit*] that he has a better claim to it than I."

It savors of pedantry to use **advent** when the familiar word *arrive* will express the idea intended. To say, "We shall not go to the mountains until the *advent* of our friends from the South," sounds at least stilted, if not vulgar. We may speak of the *advent* of that which is stately, sacred, or especially important.

Agriculturist and **conversationist** are much to be preferred to *agriculturalist* and *conversationalist.*

Ain't is a contraction that can in nowise be justified. It is an unqualified vulgarism. *I'm not* for *I am not*, and *we're not* for *we are not,* are contractions sanctioned by good usage.

The phrase **all of** should seldom, if ever, be used. Instead of "Tom took *all of* them," and "I like *all of* them," say, "Tom took them all," and "I like them all."

It is far better to say that the excitement spread "**over all** the State," than *"all over* the State." Instead of "The agent sold books *all over* the county," say, "The agent sold books *over all* the county."

A crude impropriety, common in the South, is **allow** for *think* or for *admit.* Thus, "Mr. Blank *allows* [*thinks*] that his town has the finest fire department in the State." "He *allowed* [*admitted*] that I tried harder to win the prize than he did."

One needs to exercise care not to confound **allude** with *refer.* To *refer* to an event or incident is to mention it

directly, openly. To allude to it is merely to suggest it by introducing something analogous.

When Lowell wrote,—

> "Daily with souls that cringe and plot,
> We Sinais climb and know it not,"

he *alluded* to Moses' ascending Mt. Sinai into the presence of God. But when a preacher speaks to his congregation of that event, he *refers* to it. The distinctive significance of *allude* needs to be jealously guarded in these days of reckless speech.

All the same is a colloquial phrase, hence admissible in familiar conversation, but should never be used in formal discourse, either oral or written. The proper word is *nevertheless.*

Alternative may be used only to express a choice between two courses. Thus, "Heretics were offered the *alternative* of turning or burning." But it would not be good English to say that "To surrender was the only possible *alternative.*" To surrender was the only possible *course.* We were left the choice of three (or more) *courses,* not *alternatives.*

Another gross blunder is the use of **and** for *to* in such sentences as "Try *and* earn all the money you can." "Come *and* help me this afternoon." "Go *and* see the patient, if you can." In each of these sentences *to,* not *and,* should be used.

Anticipate is used altogether too thoughtlessly by tyros. Its etymological meaning is "to take beforehand;" to go before so as to preclude another; to get the start of or to get ahead of; to possess, or enjoy, or suffer in expectation; to foresee, or foretaste. It is misused in such sentences as, "The enemy's fleet being 'bottled up,'

its capture is daily *anticipated* [*expected*]." "Because of ideal weather conditions, we *anticipate* [*expect*] excellent crops this season." In the following sentences *anticipate* is properly employed: "If not *anticipated*, I shall sometime attempt the construction of a steam-propelling bicycle." "He would probably have died by the hand of the executioner, if the executioner had not been *anticipated* by the populace."—*Macaulay.* "The true Christian *anticipates* the joys of heaven." "We *anticipate* what a person is going to say by saying it before him."—*Crabb.* "In several respects the Mosaic law is declared to have *anticipated* modern science by several thousand years."—*Hosmer.* "I shall, indeed, *anticipate* their fury by falling into a mad passion myself."—*Goldsmith.*

The student should study the explanations and illustrations of this word in the larger dictionaries and works on synonyms until he fully grasps its delicate and subtile import.

Not infrequently **anxious** is made to do duty for *desirous.* To suffer from suspense or uncertainty, to be concerned about the future, to be uneasy, unquiet, is to be *anxious.* Thus: "Mr. and Mrs. Brown were *anxious* in regard to the fate of their son, who had been a passenger on the ill-fated steamer." "The members of the senior class were nervously *anxious* in regard to results of the final examination that was to be given them."

Here are some examples of the misuse of *anxious*:—

"She is *anxious* to visit Europe next summer." "My father is *anxious* to have me complete a college course." "He was a good man, always *anxious* to do something for others." "He is very *anxious* to get into politics."

"I am *anxious* to post these letters before the next mail goes out." Obviously the proper word in these sentences is desirous, followed by the necessary modifications.

In dignified discourse the colloquialism **anyhow** should be displaced by such locutions as *at any rate, in any event, be that as it may,* and the like. There is no objection to the use of *anyhow* in ordinary conversation.

Appreciate is another pitfall for unwary feet. To *appreciate* men or things is to estimate them justly, to set a true value upon them. Hence, to say "I *appreciate* her highly," or "I *appreciate* him very much," is an absurdity. "I have great regard for her," "I hold him in high esteem," are proper substitutes. It is all right to say "I *appreciate* him," if you mean that you have a *true* estimate of him—of his faults as well as of his excellences.

Likely and *liable* are often crowded out of their places by the small word **apt**. *Apt* should be used in the sense of *naturally skilful, fit,* or *qualified;* as, "He is an *apt* teacher; an *apt* debater; an *apt* solicitor," etc. The form may be varied thus: "He has *aptitude* for teaching, for debating," etc. In the sentences that follow use *likely* or *liable,* according to the meaning intended:—

"Where shall I be *likely* [not *apt*] to find him?" "If carefully directed, the letter will be *likely* [not *apt*] to reach him." "Unless you are vigilant, you are *liable* [not *apt*] to get into trouble." "It is *likely* to rain, or *liable* to rain [not *apt*] this afternoon."

Reputable writers and speakers invariably prefer the locution **as if** to that of *as though.* Hence the following: "The horse looks *as if* [not *as though*] he had never

been groomed." "The child cried *as if* [not *as though*] it was hungry." "The oarsmen row *as if* [not *as though*] they were tired."

This preference is not an arbitrary one. Each of such sentences involves an elliptical clause, which is brought to light by an attempt to analyze the sentence. The first of the foregoing examples is equivalent to "The horse looks as he would look *if* he had never been groomed." Now substitute *though* for *if* and the result is nonsense. Each of the examples treated in the same way will show the same result.

A company of people assembled to see, or look at, something, is not an **audience.** Persons that come together to listen are collectively an *audience,* and the place where they meet is an auditorium. Hence, the absurdity of saying that the *audience* at a game of ball, or at a boat race, was large. Persons at such places are *spectators,* not *auditors.*

Authoress and **poetess,** the feminine forms of author and poet respectively, are terms that seldom, if ever, need to be used. A poet is one who writes poetry, whether a *man* or a *woman.* An author is a *person* who writes prose or poetry, not a *man* who writes, etc. Apropos of the words *poet* and *author,* Mr. Gould says: "Nothing in either word indicates sex; and everybody knows that the functions of both poets and authors are common to both sexes. Hence, *authoress* and *poetess* are superfluous. And they are superfluous, also, in another respect—that they are very rarely used; indeed, they hardly *can* be used independently of the *name* of the writer, as Mrs., or Miss, or a female Christian name. They are, besides, philological absurdities, because they are fabricated on

the false assumption that their primaries indicate *men.* They are, moreover, liable to the charge of affectation and prettiness, to say nothing of pedantic pretension to accuracy.

"If the *ess* is to be permitted, there is no reason for excluding it from *any* noun that indicates a person; and the next edition of our dictionaries may be made complete by the addition of *writress, officeress, manageress, superintendentess, secretaryess, treasureress, walkeress, talkeress,* and so on to the end of the vocabulary."

Mrs. Browning, as well as Mr. Browning, was a *poet.*

Not infrequently **avocation** is made to do duty for *vocation.* A person's *vocation* is his *regular* occupation, business, or profession; that which he does for gain, or by which he earns a livelihood. His *avocation* is what he *occasionally* engages in for pastime, pleasure, or recreation. Mr. Grover Cleveland's *vocation* is the profession of law; his *avocations* are fishing, writing for the magazines, and delivering lectures to college classes and learned societies. Some one has said that every one should have both a *vocation* and an *avocation.*

Avoid is not synonymous with *prevent* or *hinder.* In the sentence, "There shall be no failure in our school work the coming year if I can *avoid* it," *avoid* should yield its place to *prevent. Avoid* properly means to shun, to keep away from; thus, "I shall *avoid* the use of all words that savor of vulgarity."

Perhaps no word is more generally abused than **awful.** It is made to do service for all sorts of intensive adjectives and adverbs, by those whose vocabulary is smallest. Such terms as *very, unusually, exceptionally, exceedingly, intensely, great, grand,* etc., are put aside for the

ubiquitous *awful.* Thus: "We had an *awfully* [*very*] pleasant time." "Harry is an *awful* [*unusually*] bright student." "He is an *awfully* [*very*, or *exceptionally*] strict teacher." "Isn't it an *awfully* [*very**] sweet baby?" Vulgarisms so gross are never found in the diction of cultivated persons.

Awful is a genuine English word, and a very useful one, too. It is thus defined by Webster: "Oppressing with fear or horror; appalling, frightful." Further: "Fitted to inspire with reverential fear; profoundly impressive." A violent storm at sea, especially after night, is an awful phenomenon. The scene on and around Mt. Sinai, at the giving of the divine law, as described in the book of Exodus, was an *awful* one. Hence, the utter nonsense of "What an *awfully* sweet baby!"

To talk about a *slight* cold or a *severe* cold is to use words legitimately; but there is little sense in talking about a **bad cold,** as all colds are bad. They differ only in severity.

Badly is often inelegantly used for *bad;* as, "The patient looks badly," "I feel badly." It is also inaptly used for *very much;* as, "He has wanted to see you *badly,*" "We shall miss father *badly.*" Each of these statements is very much in need of a *very much.*

By using **balance** in the sense of *rest* or *remainder* is to prove one's sense of verbal propriety to be lacking in *balance.* "The excess of one thing over another" is the proper signification of *balance.* It belongs to the terminology of bookkeeping, meaning the difference between the credits and the debits.

* It would be better still to use no intensive adverb here.

To talk about the *balance* of the men, of the books, of the money, of the potatoes, etc., is an unmixed impropriety.

We may say **beastly** ravenous, or *beastly* drunk; but to talk of *beastly* weather, or of his being *beastly* ugly, or of one's being *beastly* tired, is, to say the least, crude. Refinement of speech tends to refinement of manners.

No one **belongs** to the Browning Society, to a woman's club, to a secret order, or to any other organization. Mr. Jones *is a member* of the Iroquois Club; Mrs. Jones *is a member* of the Ladies' Improvement Society.

Beside is only a preposition, never an adverb. It is properly used thus: "He sat *beside* me," "She sat weeping *beside* the monument," and so on. *Besides* means properly *in addition to;* as, "There were two cyclones passed over central Kansas *besides* the one you speak of," "*Besides* the inducements already offered, he promises to," etc.

It sometimes takes the sense of *beyond, moreover,* etc.; as, "*Besides,* he refused to fix his signature to the petition," "*Besides* [meaning *moreover*], I am not in sympathy with the project."

Better is sometimes inelegantly used with the meaning of *more than;* as, "It is *better* than a year since Uncle John was here." *Better* deserves better treatment.

One may **blacken** another's name or reputation, but not his eyes or his boots. One blackens by means of calumny, slander, etc., but *blacks* by the use of his fist or his shoe-brush.

A vulgarism that often escapes the lips of even educated persons is the phrase **blame it on.** We should say, "He *accuses* or *suspects* his neighbor of having done it," not "He *blames it on* his neighbor."

The use of **bound** in the sense of *determined, resolved, doomed,* etc., is an offense against purity of diction. "He is *determined* [not *bound*] to win," "He is *certain* [not *bound*] to be elected," "He is *doomed* [not *bound*] to fail." The proper use of *bound* is so obvious that it needs no explanation.

But is sometimes made to serve for *that* and for *than;* and it is not infrequently superfluous. "I do not doubt *but* he will succeed." Here *that* should displace *but.* In the following statements suppress *but:* "I do not doubt *but* that it is true," "There can be no doubt *but* that the President knows the facts in the case," "There is no doubt *but* that he will comply," "There is no reasonable doubt *but* that the document is what it purports to be.

In the following sentence *but* is correctly used with that: "I have no fear *but* that the message will reach him in time." Observe that to expunge *but* in this sentence would give the sentence the opposite meaning.

Calculate in the sense of *expect, purpose, intend,* or of *suppose, think,* etc., is decidedly vulgar. So far as I have been able to observe, every one who has compiled a treatise on grammar or on rhetoric, has condemned the use of *calculated* in the sense of *fitted, suited, adapted.* I am certain, however, that in this case the critics are wrong and the people are right. Our only criterion for determining the genuineness of a word used in a given sense, is good usage. No higher authority can be adduced than that of the "Century Dictionary," "Webster's International Dictionary," Goldsmith, Hawthorne, and Macaulay. Here are a few examples: "This letter was admirably *calculated* to work on those to whom it was

addressed."—*Macaulay.* "The minister, on the other hand, had never gone through an experience *calculated* to lead him beyond the scope of generally-received laws." —*Hawthorne.* In a matter of diction the verdict of either Macaulay or Hawthorne has more weight with me than that of all the purists. We need to guard, however, against making a hobby of any word.

Capable has an active, *susceptible* a passive, signification. The former is often wrongly made to do duty for the latter. Examples: "They must be made of a metal *susceptible* [not *capable*] of being polished." "We solicit for the *Dispatch* only such articles as are *susceptible* [not *capable*] of pictorial illustration." Note Kant's happy use of *susceptible* in the following: "The object of education is to develop in each individual all the perfection of which he is *susceptible.*"

Most critics condemn the use of **caption** for *heading.* But its use in this sense has become so general that the critics, I fear, will soon have to dismiss their scruples. The ground of their protest is the fact that *caption* is from the Latin word *capere,* meaning *to seize;* not from the Latin word *caput,* meaning *head.* In England *caption* is never used for *heading.*

Purists have loudly protested against the use of **celebrities** in the sense of *distinguished persons.* But the unhappy fact for the purists is that *distinguished persons* (*celebrities*) use the word in this as well as in its primary sense. Are not great authors the court of last resort?

We need to guard against using **character** for *reputation.* One's *character* is what he *is,* as God knows him. One's reputation is the estimation in which he is held by

men. Reputation, then, is not character, but what is *thought* of one's character. One may have a good character and a bad reputation, and *vice versa.* Even Jesus, the world's ideal character, had, among the Pharisees, the reputation of being a glutton and winebibber. Not *character,* but *reputation,* is injured by calumny. The two words are not synonymous.

As a rule, **claim** should not be used for *assert* or *maintain;* as, "I *claim* [maintain] that Bacon did more for the advancement of science than did Newton." "I *claim* [assert] that the teacher was in error."

Even clever persons sometimes use **clever** interchangeably with *kind, well-disposed, good-natured.* Its only true meaning is skilful, able, bright. Examples of its proper use: "Mr. W. J. Bryan is a *clever* orator." "Paul Revere was a *clever* horseman." "Most American soldiers are *clever* marksmen." "Murat Halsted is a *clever* journalist." Practically every time one is tempted to use the much-abused *smart,* he will do well to inhibit the impulse, and instead say *clever.*

So often one hears the locution **condign** punishment when *severe* or *rigorous* punishment is meant. *Condign* means suitable, merited, deserved. Hence *condign* punishment is *deserved* punishment. *Condign* praise is *merited* praise.

Be careful not to say **condone** when you mean *compensate* or *atone for. Condone* means to pardon or to forgive; as, "His friends gladly *condone* his youthful errors."

In the phrase **congregate together,** *together* is redundant, hence should be suppressed. *Congregate* alone means come together, to assemble.

Consider is very often made to do service outside its proper sphere. It is not synonymous with *think* and *regard,* as it is made to appear in these sentences: "I *consider* [*think*] him the ablest living orator," "He *considers* [*thinks*] it his duty to advise me," "Lincoln is *considered* [*regarded,* or *looked upon*] as having been the greatest publicist of the nineteenth century." *Consider* means to reflect, to meditate, to weigh in the mind. Thus: "I shall take time to *consider* your proposition before expressing an opinion in regard to it."

Contemptible is not a synonym of *contemptuous.* The former means *deserving* contempt, and is synonymous with despicable, though not so strong; the latter means *expressing* or *manifesting* contempt. We say properly: "A *contemptible* coward," "A *contemptible* sneak;" but, "A *contemptuous* opinion," "A *contemptuous* look," "A *contemptuous* mien." The student has perhaps heard the old story of Dr. Parr's contemptuous retort. A man once said to him: "Sir, I have a *contemptible* opinion of you." "That does not surprise me," returned the doctor, "all your opinions are *contemptible.*"

To use **couple** in the sense of *two of a kind* or of *a few* is admissible in conversation, but should be scrupulously avoided in all formal discourse. The proper use of the word is to denote two that are united by some bond, as, for example, that of marriage.

Creditable and **credible** have nothing in common except a few elementary sounds. The former signifies meritorious, worthy of approbation; the latter, worthy of belief, or that may be believed. Thus: "He passed his examination *creditably.*" "The junior students have done *creditable* work this semester." "I am *credibly* in-

formed that the late capitalist, Mr. Blank, bequeathed his entire estate to eleemosynary institutions." "Mr. Stanley has written a *credible* history of the adventures of Mr. Livingston."

A hungry wolf, an angry bear, or a malignant disease may be **dangerous**; but to say that a sick person is *dangerous* is decidedly absurd. A person may be *dangerously* ill, or he may be *in danger*, but a sick man can not, in the very nature of the case, be *dangerous*.

To **demean** one's self is not to lower, to debase, or to disgrace one's self, as many think. To say, "He *demeaned* himself like a gentleman," is as good English as to say, "He behaved like a gentleman." Hence, one may *demean* himself either creditably or disgracefully.

By substituting *kind* or *sort* for **description** in the following sentences, the diction will be very much improved: "Our merchants import fabrics of every *description*" [say, *sort* or *kind*]. "Fruits of every *description* [say *sort* or *kind*] are grown in California." *Description* is a species of discourse, and may be oral or written.

Despite should never be preceded by *in* or followed by *of*. "*In* despite *of* all the efforts made to induce him to try, he refused to do so," should be, "Despite all the efforts," etc. The phrase *in spite of* is sterling English.

An absurd use of **deteriorate** is to make it serve for *lessen, to take from,* or *to detract from.* Thus: "Do not, by any means, think that I wish to *deteriorate from* [detract from] the man's reputation." "It does not *deteriorate* [lessen] Washington's fame to aver that he could not have done for our country what Lincoln has done." The only meaning of deteriorate is to *grow,* or to *become worse;* thus: "Most edibles *deteriorate* with

time." "The morals, as well as the manners, of the Romans *deteriorated* under the rule of the later Cæsars."

There is no impropriety of diction more grating to cultivated ears than the use of the term **dirt** for the term *earth, loam, sand,* or *gravel. Dirt* means filth or uncleanness, and nothing else. Who dares to say that God made our planet to consist of *dirt?* Lord Palmerston defined *dirt* as "matter in the wrong place." Loam or mud in the street is not *dirt;* but when it adheres to my clothes or to my person, it is *dirt.* Fruit-juice in a spoon, a glass, or a dish, is not *dirt.* It becomes dirt when spilled on the floor, on one's collar or shirt-front. Is it not pleasing to know that one's dead friend is under six feet of earth, and not under six feet of *dirt?*

To donate expresses to most persons a meritorious act; but the *word* is very offensive to the watch-dogs of the King's English. The critics, to a man, tell us that we should say *give, grant, bestow,* or *present,* but never *donate.* But the people will and do use the proscribed word; and I honestly fear that its use will survive its detractors. The noun *donation,* they tell us, passes muster.

Don't, a contraction of *do not,* is often made to do duty for *doesn't,* a contraction of *does not.* Hence, we may not use *don't* where *do not* would not be appropriate. *Don't* can not have for a subject a substantive of the third person, singular number.

Of the words **due** and **owing,** the former is not seldom made to serve for the latter. Whatever ought to be paid as a debt is *due;* as, "My taxes are *due.*" "Constant obedience is *due* to God." "It is *due* to the public that I should state the facts in the case as I know them."

In such sentences as follow, *owing* [not *due*] is the proper word: "The happy consummation of the Civil War was, in no small degree, *owing* to the tact, the patience, the wisdom, and the sublime resolution of President Lincoln." "Moody's success as an evangelist was *owing* to his unwavering confidence in the promises of God." "Grant's rise to military primacy was *owing* to his iron tenacity."

Editorial is essentially an adjective. Its use as a noun is an Americanism. In England an *editorial* is called a "leader."

It is cruel, as well as crude, to inflict on cultured persons the pain of hearing such senseless locutions as "an **elegant** sauce," "an *elegant* apple," "*elegant* coffee," "an *elegant* crop of potatoes," etc. *Elegant* is properly used thus: "The duchess was distinguished by her *elegant* manners," "No writer surpassed De Quincey in *elegance* of literary style." We can speak of "*elegant* furniture," an "*elegant* equipage," "*elegant* costume," or an "*elegant* tea-set." In some of these phrases the word *splendid* would serve equally well. Here are a few synonyms: Graceful, refined, tasteful. polished, handsome, richly ornamented.

A common redundancy is **equally as well.** Either *equally* or *as* should be expunged. *Equally well,* or *as well,* expresses the idea intended.

"He bore his misfortunes with **equanimity.**" "His success as a judge was largely owing to his uncommon *equanimity.*" The chances are ten to one that the tyro would tack *of mind* on *equanimity*; thus, *equanimity of mind.* As *equanimity* means evenness or calmness of mind, the *of mind* is superfluous.

The prepositions **except** and **without** are sometimes erroneously used for the subordinate conjunction *unless*. *Unless* properly introduces one of the divers sorts of subordinate clauses. *Except* and *without* should never be used for this purpose. As prepositions their office is to introduce phrases, not clauses. Examples: "I will not learn Greek *unless* [not *except*] I am compelled to do so." "He will not be admitted *unless* [not *except*] he can show evidence of good moral character." The use of *except* in the sense of *unless* was current in the seventeenth century; hence, often so employed in the authorized version of the Bible.

Excessively must not be pressed into the service of *exceedingly* or of *very*. "It is *exceedingly* [not *excessively*] warm." "That is an *exceedingly* [not *excessively*] tall spire." *Excessively* means *to a greater degree than necessary*. Thus: "She grieves *excessively*," "He studies *excessively*."

The champions of pure English do not countenance the using of **execute** in the sense of carrying into effect the death penalty. They contend that laws, orders, and penalties, are *executed;* but criminals are *hanged* or *beheaded,* as the case may be. The people and the dictionaries, however, ignore this *dictum* of the purists.

Expect may be used only in reference to that which is to come, and not to that which is past or present. Instead of "I *expect* you had a pleasant time at the seaside last month," say, "I *suppose* you had," etc. For "I *expect* he must have felt relieved when the case was dismissed," say, "I *suppose* he must," etc. "I *expect* to go to college next year," and "He *expects* to spend next month in Chicago," are examples of the correct use of *expect*.

It is in bad taste, to say the least, to use the term **female** when *woman* is meant; as, "Such aversion is natural to a *female* [*woman*]," "Doubtless a *female* [*woman*] is a better teacher of children than a *male* [*man*]." *Male* and *female* should be used only when it is desirable to point out sex.

Find is sometimes absurdly used for *furnish* or *supply*. Thus: "The employers *find* [*furnish*] the tools." "Employees are herewith informed that everything is *found* [*supplied*] by the firm."

No reputable writer sanctions the use of **firstly**. *Secondly, thirdly*, etc., are sterling English, but *first* must serve as both an adjective and an adverb.

Perhaps no word is more "roundly" abused than **fix**. Its legitimate use is to express the idea of fastening down, making secure by binding, making permanently firm or immovable. Thus: "He *fixed* his eye on me." "Buried in thought, she sat *fixed* like a statue." In the following sentences it is wrongly used: "He will *fix* [*arrange*] the furniture for you." "I shall *fix* [*arrange*] the books on the shelves." "Tell the servant to *fix* [*repair*] the fences this afternoon." In the following, *fix* is a vulgarism: "The sheriff will *fix* you all right." "He was in a *fix*." "I must *fix up* if I go with you." "Everything is nicely *fixed*.

Forward, upward, downward, toward, etc., are properly written without a final *s*.

A very common blunder is the misuse of **future** for *thereafter, afterward,* or *subsequent*. *Future* can refer only to time that is still to come when the word is used. Note the following: "Shakespeare quit London in 1611. Of his *future* [*subsequent*] life little is known." "Her

father dying when she was forty, her *future* [*after,* or *subsequent*] life was sad and lonesome." "During all her *future* [*subsequent*] years the queen lived in comparative retirement." "At a *future* [*subsequent*] meeting of the Cabinet a decision was reached." "In 1800 the federal capital was located in the District of Columbia for all *future* [*subsequent*] time."

The terms **lady** and **gentleman** should never be used to designate sex. Such use is a breach of good taste, as well as of verbal propriety. In the following sentences *gentleman* or *gentlemen* should yield its place to *man* or *men;* and *lady* or *ladies,* to *woman* or *women: "Gentlemen* should be as much interested in the growing of flowers as are *ladies."* "'If we were *gentlemen,'* remarked one of the *ladies,* 'we would all go to the front.'" "In this country *gentlemen* are expected to conform to the same moral standards as are *ladies."*

"In nine cases out of ten," says a writer in the *New York Sun,* "the use of *gentleman* for *man* is a case of affectation founded neither in education nor politeness."

There is no vulgarism more gross than the barbarism **gents** for *gentlemen.* No man of culture and refinement —no gentleman, in short—would employ a term so crude. A mere *gent* might.

Until very recently all professional critics have contended that **got** when used with has or have to express simple possession, should be suppressed. But in Goldsmith's phrase, "Times have altered," and Mr. Brainerd Kellogg, in the latest edition of his Rhetoric, tells us that the locution *has got* has the sanction of good usage. He proves his case, too, by citing a large number of examples from authors of the highest order. Accordingly,

we may say, "He *has got* a new watch," "*Have* they *got* the measles?" "He *has got* an English setter." We need to guard against this use of *got,* when such use would result in ambiguity. The question, "Has John *got* a wife?" might mean, "Does John *have* [*possess*] a wife?" or, "Has John *procured* a wife?" At any rate *got* as used in all the foregoing sentences is superfluous, though not erroneous.

Instead of putting it, I **graduated,** He *graduated,* They *graduated,* we must now put it, I *was* graduated, He *was* graduated, They *were* graduated. Hence, "Garfield *was* graduated at Williams College," not, "He graduated at Williams College."

Guess in the sense of *think* or *suppose* has become a respectable colloquialism, to say the least. It should, however, be rigidly excluded from dignified composition. Long ago Webster stigmatized this use of *guess* as a "gross vulgarism." Suffice it to say that time has been very kind to this little Yankee favorite.

Had ought is an unmixed vulgarism. *Ought* never needs to be encumbered with *had.*

Would better and **would rather** are and always have been irreproachable English. Though critics have always looked askance at **had better** and **had rather,** these locutions are gradually winning their way into favor. They have the sanction of such thinkers as Hawthorne, Ruskin, Lowell, W. D. Howells, etc.,—quite respectable authority.

The past tense of **hang,** when suspension by the neck for the purpose of taking life is meant, is always **hanged.** In all other cases *hung* is the proper form. "The assassin was *hanged* [not *hung*] last Friday."

Only in familiar conversation may we use **help** in the sense of *avoid* or of *prevent.* Thus: "I can not *help* [*avoid*] making occasional mistakes." "I will not pay more for a hat than I *can help* [*must*]."

Idea is not synonymous with *opinion.* "I have an idea that it pays to be honest," would be more aptly expressed thus: "It is my opinion that it pays to be honest." *Idea* means properly a mental image, a percept, a notion, or a concept.

A gross barbarism that one sometimes hears is **illy.** The word has no place in our English vocabulary. *Ill* is the noun, the adjective, and the adverb.

In our midst, *in your midst, in their midst,* are phrases that careful writers avoid. It is safer to say *among us,* or *with us,* etc.

Professor Geo. P. Marsh has this to say in regard to the phrase **in respect of**: "The deliberate introduction of incorrect forms, whether by the coinage of new or the revival of obsolete and inexpressive syntactical combinations, ought to be resisted even in trifles, especially where it leads to the confusion of distinct ideas. An example of this is the recent use of the adverbial phrase *in respect of, in regard of,* for *in* or *with* respect *to,* or regard *to.* This innovation is without any syntactical ground, and ought to be condemned and avoided as a mere grammatical crotchet."

Those who are partial to big words frequently say **inaugurate,** when they really mean *begin,* or *introduce. Inaugurate* has for its distinctive meaning, to install in office with more or less ceremony. "Next week we shall *inaugurate* a new plan." Read, "*introduce* a new plan." "Our educational work with the Indians will be *inaug-*

urated next spring." Read, "will be *started* (or *begun*) next spring."

The phrase, **It goes without saying,** is at variance with the idiom of the English language. *It is self-evident* is a safe substitute.

The noun **jeopardy** is a genuine English word. It will surprise many to learn that the corresponding verb, written **jeopardize**, is tabooed by the best authorities. *To jeopard* is the accredited form of the verb. Thus: "A people that *jeoparded* their lives unto the death." Judges 5: 18.

I *am about to go* is shorter and crisper than I **am just going to go.**

The **a** is superfluous in such forms as, "What *kind of a* fish is it?" "What *kind of a* man is he?" Simply, "What *kind of* fish is it?" etc.

Kinsman is an old thoroughbred English word, too infrequently used nowadays. It is an excellent word with which to "ring a change" on *relative* or *relation*, used to designate blood connection.

Lengthened and **long** are no more synonyms than are *strengthened* and *strong*. They must not, therefore, be used interchangeably.

Long and **lengthy** are synonyms in the sense of meaning *much extended*. But *lengthy* carries with it the additional idea of tediousness. A *lengthy* address is so long that it tires the audience.

Though the dictionaries recognize both **lenity** and **leniency,** writers of repute give decided preference to *lenity*. "Aguinaldo has expressed gratitude for the exceeding *lenity* [better than *leniency*] that has been shown him by the U. S. authorities."

We need to discriminate between **less** and **fewer.** *Less* has reference to quantity; *fewer,* to number. Examples: "There is *less* wheat grown in Europe than in the United States." "There were not *fewer* than fifty pupils in attendance." *Fewer* is used with what is counted; *less* with what is weighed or measured.

Lesser, though a double comparative, is well accredited. It may be used interchangeably with *less.* Its legitimacy, we are told, is owing to its being more euphonious than *less.*

To many persons the word **limited** has become a fetich. They forget that *small, slight, slender,* etc., are pure English words. It is better—sometimes, at least—to say, "*low* price" than "*limited* price;" a "*slight* acquaintance" than a "*limited* acquaintance;" "*small,* or *slender,* means" than "*limited* means."

Lit, as form of the past tense of *light,* we are told by some critics is obsolete, and that therefore *lighted* is the only permissible form. *Lit,* however, is recognized by both the "Standard Dictionary" and "Webster's International Dictionary." It is, perhaps, safer to use *lighted* in dignified diction.

Lend and **loan** are virtually identical in meaning. But *lend,* as a rule, is to be preferred. Some authorities condemn *loan.*

Careful writers and speakers studiously avoid the use of **locate** in the sense of *settle. Locate* is a transitive verb; *settle* may be used transitively or intransitively. "Where will the immigrants *settle* [not *locate*]?" "They will *settle* [not *locate*] in Kansas."

A great many and *a great deal* are often made to give

place to the coarse colloquialism **lot** or **lots**; as, "We have *lots* of friends," "He has *lots* of money."

Loud, louder, loudest, are not only adjectives, but adverbs as well. They may be used for *loudly, more loudly,* and *most loudly,* respectively.

Persons who think do not **love** flowers, horses, pictures, apples, etc.; they merely *like* them. They *love* their wives, children, kinsmen, sweethearts, truth, justice, God.

Girls, especially, need to guard against making a pet of **lovely.** With too many of them everything is *lovely.* Would not *beautiful,* or *pretty,* or *graceful,* or *handsome,* or *pleasant,* serve fully as well,—sometimes at least?

Luncheon is the correct form—not *lunch.* The latter is permissible in conversation.

Last and **latest** are frequently confounded. To say that you had just read the *last* letter from Blank implies that no letter will ever follow from him. But to say that you are reading the *latest* letter from B. merely shows that it is the most recent letter received from him. He may write many more.

Luxuriant means exuberant growth; as, *luxuriant* foliage, *luxuriant* growth, *luxuriant* vines, and—figuratively—*luxuriant* imagination. **Luxurious,** on the other hand, means ministering to luxury; supplied with the conditions of luxury; indulging in, or delighting in, luxury; as, *luxurious* ease, a *luxurious* table, a *luxurious* life, a *luxurious* sofa, and so on.

In public address, or when writing for the press, we should not use **mad** in the sense of *angry. Mad* properly means crazy, insane; violent desire; uncontrollable appetite or passion. *Mad,* in the sense of *angry,* is an

Americanism. It was once so used in England, but is now avoided as an archaism. See Acts 26: 11.

Pay a visit, not **make a visit**, is the proper form.

To use **middling** for *fairly* or tolerably is to *mis*use it. It may not be used as an adverb. Thus: "He does his work *middling* [*fairly*] well," "It is *middling* [*quite*] good."

Mighty for *very* is a common vulgarism. Those who prize clean English do not use such expressions as *mighty* small, *mighty* weak, *mighty* well, *mighty* pretty. What a pity that so noble a word should be so ignobly employed!

Mind is often made to do duty for *obey*. Thus used it becomes next neighbor to *slang*. It is at least inelegant. "Do the children *mind* you?" should be, "Do the children *obey* you?" *Mind* may be used for *remember* occasionally.

To say, "Mary is **capricious**," is in much better taste than to say, "Mary's mind is *capricious*." Her feet are certainly not capricious.

Most should not be confounded with *almost*. *Most* is misused whenever it can be supplanted by *nearly*, without modifying the sense. *Nearly* and *almost* are synonyms, but *most* and *nearly* are not.

"**Mutual** friend," says Macaulay, "is a low vulgarism for *common* friend." *Mutual* signifies reciprocity of feeling or sentiment, and so can relate to only two persons. If Jones is both Smith's and Brown's friend, then he is their *common* friend,—not their *mutual* friend. But Smith and Brown may have *mutual* aversion—disliking each other; or they may have *mutual* affection—loving each other. If Smith and Jones own jointly a

certain farm, that farm is not their *mutual;* but their *common,* property. Husband and wife have *mutual* love, but *common* interests. "Their *common* enmities cemented their friendship." Suppose this sentence were changed to, "Their *mutual* enmity," etc., could their friendship be cemented?

It is said that Oscar Wilde once asked of a bright Cleveland girl, "Don't you think 'nice' is a **nasty** word?" when she retorted, "And do you think 'nasty' is a *nice* word?" *Nice* is not nasty; neither is *nasty* nice. *Nasty* is correctly used in the sense of foul, dirty, disgusting, nauseous, and even indecent. It is incorrectly used in the sense of disagreeable, unpropitious, wet, drizzling; as, *nasty* day, *nasty* weather, *nasty* climate. How much more sensible and apt would it be to say, a *disagreeable* day, etc.

Scholars are by no means agreed in regard to the correctness of using **never** in sentences like these: "He is culpable, though *never* so ignorant," "Let the offense be of *never* so high a nature," "Charm he *never* so wisely." The preponderance of authority, however, gives the preference to *ever* in such constructions. Thus: "Were it *ever* so fine a day, I would not go out." "If I take *ever* so little of this drug, it will kill me." *Ever* is clearly the safer word.

"**Nice** is as good a word as any other in its place, but its place is not everywhere," writes Mr. Alfred Ayres. The word is aptly used thus: A *nice* distinction, a *nice* calculation, a *nice* discrimination, a *nice* point; also in the sense of subtile, acute, precise; as, *nice* taste, *nice* judgment.

Except in conversation, *nice* is not correctly used for agreeable, pleasant, gratifying, delightful, good. Such locutions as *nice* day, *nice* party, *nice* sauce, *nice* lecture, *nice* climate, etc., are all interdicted.

Nothing can be more crude than the use of **nicely** for *well* in this fashion: "How do you do?" *"Nicely,* thank you." An apt response would be, "Quite well," or "Very well."

The phrase "whether or **no**" in pure English should be "whether or *not.*" "Will he go or *no?*" Supplying the ellipsis, we have, "Will he go or *no* go?" Clearly, the right word in this construction is *not,* not *no.*

The majority of careful writers treat **none** as a plural. Etymologically it is a singular, but using it as the subject of a singular verb makes a very discordant combination. For the sake of euphony, then, it is better to conform to the practise of most scholars, and treat it as a plural. *Not one,* or *no one* is the proper form to use with the singular verb.

"In general," wrote the late Professor Bell, "*O* should be used to indicate all deep, serious, or solemn emotion; while *oh* is the better term to denote physical suffering, or light, trivial, hilarious emotion." I desire to add that when either of these interjections is used with a vocative, or direct address, *O* is to be preferred, especially in prayers and adjuration; as, "Unto Thee, O Lord, do I lift up my soul!" The Psalms are replete with examples. When uttering a strong wish, *O* is often used; as, "O for a lodge in some vast wilderness!"

Observe, when used instead of *say,* or *remark,* is often ambiguous. "What did you observe?" might mean, "What did you *see,* or *notice?*" or "What did you *re-*

mark?" As a rule, then, it is better to use *observe* in the sense of *notice* only.

Of should not immediately follow *off*. "He fell *off* the horse;" not, "off *of* the horse." "Get *off* the grass;" not, "off *of* the grass."

The phrase **universal panacea** is tautological. *Panacea* alone means a universal remedy; a cure-all. Example: "According to Dr. B., a proper regimen is the only *panacea.*"

The propriety of using the term **pantaloons** is, to say the least, questionable. "At any rate," says a writer in the *New York Sun*, "it [*pantaloons*] is not a word of good repute in the English language." It is a word of Italian birth, and means properly a garment "consisting of stockings and breeches in one." The contraction **pants** is a still more offensive barbarism. The fact that so many tailors and clothiers encourage its use by their example is most regrettable. It deserves to be unceremoniously bowed out of current speech. So long as we have the sound, irreproachable word *trousers*, we should use no base substitutes. A mere *gent* may wear *pants* or *pantaloons*, but a *gentleman* wears *trousers.*

A **paradox** is not an *absurdity*, but a *seeming* absurdity. Hence, the incorrectness of the locution, "It seems like a *paradox.*" To say, "It *seems* like an *absurdity*," is the same as saying, "It *is* a *paradox.*" A *paradox*, then, is not an absurdity, but a statement that *seems* an absurdity.

To **partake** is to share something with another or others—as of food or other benefits. Those who have a *penchant* for fine words use *partake* instead of *to eat.*

They say complacently, "I *partook* of an orange," or, "I *partook* of some cake," and so on, when they know that not a crumb of the cake was eaten by another.

Party is used properly in legal documents. To use it to designate an individual without reference to legal matters is to blunder. "I spoke to the *person* yesterday;" not, to the *party*.

Such phrases as "The **past** three years," "The *past* ten days," and "The *past* two nours," should be, "The *last* three years," "The *last* ten days," etc. "The *past* three years" may mean *any* three years in the past; not necessarily the most recent three years.

The shopkeeper who speaks of his **customers** uses better English than the one who speaks of his *patrons*. Your *patron* places you under obligations to him; but your *customer* does not.

Pellmell is an adverb that modifies such verbs as *crowd, mingle, come together;* and means in *utter confusion;* as, "Excited men, women, and youth rushed *pellmell* into the stock-market chamber." Hence, the absurdity of applying it to an individual; as, "The thief ran *pellmell* down the street."

To say, "a dollar **a** yard," "ten cents *a* pound," and so on, is to use purer English than one does in saying, "a dollar *per* day," "ten cents *per* pound." *Per,* being Latin, is properly used before the Latin forms *annum, diem,* and *cent* (per cent).

Place should not be used for *where* in such forms as, "The children want to go some *place* [*where*]," "I am weary of sitting here; let's go some *place* [*where*]."

The past tense of **plead** is *pleaded,* not *plead* (*pled*).

Plenty is a noun, and can not be used as an adjective

in the sense of *plentiful.* Money is *plentiful;* not, *plenty.* In those days deer were *plentiful;* not, *plenty.*

Persons of culture do not speak of **polite** invitations, *polite* receptions, etc.; but of *kind* invitations, *kind* receptions, *kind* attentions.

A common error is to say **portion** when *part* is meant. A share, a division, an allotment, is properly a *portion.* "In what *part* [not, *in what portion*] of the state does he live?" "What *part,* or *proportion* [not, *portion*] of the valley is arable?" The prodigal son received his portion of his father's property; *i. e.,* a definite allotment.

Mr. Fitzgerald writes: "**Posted,** or *well posted,* in the sense of well informed or instructed, learned, or well read, is slangy and shoppy—smelling of day-book and ledger." The use of *posted* in this sense is very general; and the prospect of reform is not encouraging. Those who aim at accuracy will not seek to *post,* but to *inform,* themselves.

Prepossess is a useful word that is too much neglected. It is the complement of *prejudice.* They both express a judgment formed beforehand, and without full inquiry; but in the case of *prepossession* it is favorable, and in *prejudice* it is unfavorable. Hence, a person is *prejudiced* against another person, a doctrine, theory, institution, or what not. On the other hand, he may be *prepossessed* in favor of this, that, or the other. To say, "He is *prejudiced* in her favor," is to utter a contradiction.

"**Preventive** is better than cure." The longer form, *preventative,* is not in good repute. It is used by only the unschooled.

Procure in the sense of *get* may be used occasionally for the sake of variety. Using it constantly in preference to *get* savors of pedantry. It is pedants, too, who are forever asking, "Where did Cain *procure* his wife?" They would feel nervous if some artless fellow should ask where Cain *got* his wife.

Vicious literature does not **promote** crime; it *fosters* crime. *Promote* means to advance only what is good.

Proposition is too frequently used for *proposal.* A *proposition* is something offered for consideration, for discussion, for demonstration. A *proposal* is something offered for acceptance or rejection. We make a *proposal* to another to enter into partnership with him. He accepts or rejects the *proposal.* A *proposition* is usually in writing, and is given a distinct form, with a view to its formal discussion.

Proven, as the past participle of the verb *to prove,* is "confined chiefly to law courts and documents." The accepted form is *proved,* the form of the past tense. It has been *proved;* not, It has been *proven.*

Providing, a present participle, should never supplant the subordinate conjunction *provided* in such sentences as, "Mr. C. will give the city $25,000 to be applied to the erection of a library building, *provided* the city will raise annually $5,000 for maintaining the library." "He will go to college *provided* he succeeds in raising the necessary money."

Parents who properly care for their children do not **raise** them, but *rear* them. Farmers *raise* chickens, calves, wheat, etc.

The locutions, **real** pretty, *real* pleasant, *real* fine, etc., are solecisms. *Real,* which is exclusively an adjective,

is here used as an adverb. Substitute *very* or *decidedly.*

Relative is a better word than *relation,* when speaking of one's kinsman.

We should not praise the excellent **rendition** of a poem or of a play, but the *rendering* of it. We speak properly of the *rendition* of a fugitive from justice; or of the *rendition* of a town, of a fortress, etc., in time of war. We see, then, that *rendition* is a synonym of *surrender,* of *yielding up.*

Replace is sometimes misused for *take the place of, displace,* or *supersede;* as, "Who can *replace* Mr. Blaine, Mr. Gladstone, and Prince Bismarck?" "Mr. Hay *replaced* Mr. Day, in Mr. McKinley's cabinet." "President Dwight, of Yale, was *replaced* by President Hadley." In all these sentences *replace* should be displaced by *displace, supersede,* or *take the place of.*

Reside is another pretentious word that should be used sparingly. The sturdy little word *live* is good enough for mature writers. It is much more natural and sensible to *live* in *houses* than to *reside* in *residences. Residence* is a useful word in its place, but needs to be employed with discrimination. But then some persons will walk on stilts and ride "bikes."

Resurrect—the verb form of *resurrection*—is a barbarism. Its use is studiously shunned by authors of repute. Here is an excerpt from the *New York Sun:*—

"Our correspondent complains that he has seen the word *resurrect* in the *Sun.* If this be so, it was an error that we never noticed, and we now take it back and are sorry for it. In so saying, we enjoy the high satisfaction peculiar to one who is willing to confess his wrong."

How much more restful the familiar locution **go to bed** sounds than does the more formal *retire*. Only a captious critic *never* says *retire* for *go to bed*. All persons with a sense of the fitness of things say *retire* occasionally, but only with due regard to the occasion. Men *retire* from business, or from public life, but, as a rule, they *go to bed* when the day's work is done.

Gums is often inelegantly used instead of *overshoes*. *Rubbers* is another counterfeit substitute. *Overshoes* is the only one of the three that is above reproach. In spite of critics, the term *rubbers* will remain popular, but should be rigidly excluded from dignified diction, at least.

Neither revelation nor nature furnish any ground for calling the first day of the week **Sabbath**. Its only proper designation is *Sunday*. Among English-speaking people the Puritans were the first to use *Sabbath* for *Sunday*.

Satisfy is sometimes very incorrectly used for *convince*. Thus: "It will not take me long to *satisfy* you that Smith is in the right." *Convince* should take the place of *satisfy*.

Scholar is too frequently used in the sense of *pupil*, or of *student*. A *pupil* is one who is more especially under the personal care and instruction of a teacher than is a *student* or a *scholar*. Hence, those who attend a school lower than a high school are usually called *pupils;* those in higher grades are properly called *students*. It would be well if the word *scholar* could be restricted to learned persons.

The use of **section** for vicinity, neighborhood, part, or region, is not legitimate. It is a Westernism. "In what

part of the state does he live?" is far preferable to, "In what *section* of the state," etc. "Does he live in this *section?*" Say, "Does he live in this *neighborhood?*"

The correctness of the phrase **seldom if ever** can not be challenged. It is to be preferred to *seldom or never.*

Our diction is not above criticism when we speak of **settling** our hotel bills, or our car fare, and so on. Speaking properly, we *pay* them.

"Many years **ago,**" "six months *ago,*" "about a year *ago,*" and so on, are better authenticated forms of expression than are, "Many years *since,*" "six months *since,*" "about a year *since,*" and so forth. It is better to use *since* only where an object or a clause is required after it.

As **depot** is properly used to designate a storehouse, it is better to apply the word *station* to a stopping-place on a railway. The officers in control of some of the leading railways of America require their employees to use the word *station* instead of *depot.*

Some should not be used for *somewhat.* "The patient is *some* better," should be, "The patient is *somewhat* better." "He is thinking *some* of buying an automobile," should be, "He has *some* thought of buying an automobile." *Some* is not an adverb.

Specialty, not *speciality,* is the authenticated form.

While many scholars shun the locution **standpoint,** the best dictionaries sanction it. *Point of view* is universally accepted, and is therefore the safer form to use.

State, as a synonym of *say,* means to set forth in detail; to give all the particulars; to represent all the circumstances of the case; to explain specifically; as, "Mr. Blank *stated* why he had quitted the Populist

party." "He *stated* his objections to the President's foreign policy."

Note how different from these are the following:—

"It is *said* [not *stated*] that the Governor will be his party's candidate for a second term." "It is *said* [not *stated*] that the king's youngest son will enter the naval service." "He *said* [not *stated*] that the meeting was harmonious.

One **stays**, not *stops*, at a hotel, at the home of a friend, or at his own home. "At what hotel did you *stay* [not *stop*]?" To cease to go forward, to leave off, are the ideas properly expressed by *stop;* while *to linger, to tarry, to dwell* are correctly expressed by *stay.*

Struck is the better form of the past participle of *strike* in all cases except where affliction is referred to. Thus: "The superfluous words were *struck* out of the sentence." "The victim was *struck* on the back." "He was *stricken* with smallpox."

One needs to be especially careful in the use of **such** and **so**. *Such* has reference to kind or quality, while *so* implies degree. "I never saw *so* tall a man before," means that I have never seen a man that possessed so great a degree of tallness. "I never saw *such* a tall man before," means that I have never seen a tall man of this peculiar kind. In practically all such constructions, *so,* not *such,* is the proper word.

"He is an able lawyer." **"Sure,"** answers the one addressed. The answer should be *"surely."* *Sure* is an adjective, not an adverb.

"Will you **have** some toast?" not, "Will you *take* some toast?" For the offering of civilities, *have,* not *take,* is the proper word.

To use **thanks** for **thank you** is, to say the least, inelegant. Courtesy is never curt or brusque.

Transpire is not infrequently used in the sense of *happen, occur, take place;* as, Momentous events *transpired* [*took place*] during the nineteenth century. Transpire is further misused as a synonym of *elapsed, passed by, gone by;* as, Nearly forty years have *transpired* since the close of the Civil War.

The actual meaning of *transpire* is to become known; to leak out; to come to light; to escape from secrecy. Thus: "It *transpires* that the aggregate wealth of the United States, in 1900, was a little less than ninety billion dollars. It has *transpired* that Mr. Brown wrote the poem that appeared anonymously in the *Dispatch* last week. They determined not to permit the proceedings of the council meeting to *transpire*. It *transpires* that negroes were not permitted to vote at the last election in Blankville.

We shall **try** an experiment. Read, We shall *make* an experiment. Experimenting is trying. No one tries a trying.

Unbeknown has no footing in the language. It is never used by those who write pure English.

Under his signature—not *over his signature*—is the authorized form. The phrase does not mean *under his signature* as to space, but under the *authority* of his signature.

Upward of in such forms as *Upward of* a year, *Upwards of* half a century, and so on, is of doubtful propriety, and should be supplanted with *more than.*

We say properly, A **valued** not [*valuable*] contrib-

utor, A *valued* [not *valuable*] counselor. We may say a *valuable* horse, farm, jewel, etc.

Veracity means truth or truthfulness, and can be applied only to persons; as, I do not doubt the speaker's *veracity*. Even his enemies admitted Lincoln's undoubted *veracity*.

Critics have often assailed the use of **verbal** in the sense of *oral*. The dictionaries and many of the best writers sanction its use in this sense. *Verbal* strictly means, in words; composed of words, whether *oral* or *written* words.

Way is often erroneously used for *away;* as, *Way* [*away*] down South, *Way* [*away*] out West, He soon made way [away] with the money. "A long **ways** off" should be A long *way* off.

From whence is tautological. *From* is superfluous. We say properly, *Whence* came the apparition? not, *From* whence came, etc.

Widow woman belongs under the same category as do *free gratis, off of, royal monarch,* and so on. Are not widows always women? Why, then, widow *woman?*

The italicized word or phrase in each of the following sentences is at variance with either Purity or Propriety of English Diction. The proper word or phrase in each case is placed within brackets.

1. He was born in Spain, but *raised* [reared] in this country.

2. I have *every* [perfect] confidence in his honesty.

3. He *as good as* [virtually] offered to take them both.

4. He is thoroughly *posted* [informed] on such matters.

5. He nearly got into a *scrape* [difficulty] yesterday.

6. It isn't *above* [more than] a fortnight since we saw him.

7. He promised to come *right away* [at once].

8. He has just *got over* [recovered from] a second attack.

9. He took me *apart* [aside] to tell me the news.

10. It is *funny* [strange] that you did not see him.

11. He seems *bound* [determined] to make the attempt.

12. What could have *possessed* [induced] him to do it?

13. I need a new brush *the worst way* [I am very much in need of a new brush].

14. I can *scarcely tell them apart* [hardly distinguish them].

15. The Governor has *deputized* [deputed] Mr. Jones to act for him.

16. *This* [thus] much may be said in favor of the project.

17. Fruit is so *plenty* [plentiful] that it is very cheap.

18. You will admire the *go-ahead-a-tive-ness* [aggressiveness] of the man.

19. He would as *lieve* [lief] be a private as an officer.

20. The *observation* [observance] of this law will be enforced.

21. His *rugged* [vigorous] health is his best wealth.

22. Our train is now at the *depot* [station].

23. I *predicate* [base] this statement on facts known to you.

24. The traitor was *hung* [hanged] at ten o'clock.

25. The report should be wholly *discounted* [discredited].

26. The boy held firmly to a *banister* [balustrade] of the staircase.

27. His benevolent *actions* [acts, or deeds] are not forgotten.

28. Do you *anticipate* [expect] his arrival to-day?

29. I *indorse* [sanction, or approve of] what the minister said.

30. Are the angels *corporal* [corporeal] beings?

31. To master the French language in three months is not *practical* [practicable].

32. The counter was covered with a *various* [varied] assortment of cards.

33. He thanked them for the honor *bestowed* [conferred] on him.

34. I would have gone if it had been *never* [ever] so stormy.

35. It was a most *luxuriant* [luxurious] banquet.

36. The letter was addressed to the *Reverent* [Reverend] Mr. Brown.

37. The children behaved in a *reverend* [reverent] manner.

38. He bore the operation with the greatest *courage* [fortitude].

39. What method of *proceeding* [procedure] would you adopt in the case?

40. Do not leave more than you *can* [can't] help.

41. The *falseness* [falsity] of his statement was soon evident.

42. He inflicted *corporeal* [corporal] punishment.

43. He was exposed to *continuous* [continual] interruption.

44. He agreed to return *inside of* [within] three days.

45. He was not *conscious* [aware] of what had been done in his absence.

46. In that way you will be most *liable* [likely] to get at the truth.

47. The *enormity* [enormousness] of the cost of the proposed canal, etc.

48. We placed everything in the shop at their *disposition* [disposal].

49. I did not hear your *answer* [reply] to his charge.

50. There is a crack running down the *center* [middle] of the wall.

51. You will be very *apt* [likely] to find him in his office.

52. I could not *persuade* [convince] him that he was wrong.

53. His *future* [subsequent] life is said to have been irreproachable.

54. He seemed disposed to question the *veracity* [truthfulness] of my statement.

55. In the meantime important events were *transpiring* [taking place] in Ireland.

56. We have no desire to *deteriorate* [detract] from his merit.

57. It was with difficulty that the lawyer *eliminated* [elicited] the desired information.

58. He can't take care of himself, *let alone* [much less of] the children.

59. My interests are *synonymous* [identical] with yours.

60. His awkward handling of the mallet showed that he was only an *amateur* [novice].

61. Abraham welcomed three heavenly *visitors* [visitants].

62. He rejected the *proposition* [proposal] made by his friend.

63. I have found the package *alluded* [referred] to in your advertisement.

64. He was *aware* [conscious] of the hatred that rankled in his heart.

65. In spite of his efforts, he could not *remember* [recollect] the date.

66. After the witness had given his *evidence* [testimony] the case was adjourned.

67. The Irish are *perpetually* [continually] using *shall* for *will*.

68. The proprietor is an uncommonly zealous *individual* [person].

69. His life shows clearly the *falsity* [falseness] of his character.

70. The rogue deserved *condign* [severe] punishment for his crime.

71. No one *beside* [besides] the near relatives was invited.

72. The practise of medicine was his lifelong *avocation* [vocation].

73. Have you any *idea* [thought] of returning to school next year?

74. The *sincerity* [genuineness] of his religion was attested by his works.

75. They were all persons of more or less *consequence* [importance].

76. My employers have *sent* [made] me the remittances I expected.

77. Many Christians believe in the *efficiency* [efficacy] of prayer to cure disease.

78. He had no just sense of the *enormousness* [enormity] of his offense.

79. My friend *presented* [introduced] me to his daughter.

80. Every application made for the prisoner's pardon was *unsuccessful* [ineffectual, or unavailing].

81. The boy *aggravates* [exasperates] me very much by his impudence.

82. A house on Piper Street was *burglarized* [entered by burglars] yesterday.

83. He *orated* [delivered an oration] in the pavilion last night.

84. He *enthused* [aroused the enthusiasm of] his audience.

85. Uncle Tom was *upon his ear* [piqued].

86. It was evident that he *had the blues* [was dejected].

87. His *heighth* [height] was six feet.

88. *Genius,* in its usual *acceptance* [acceptation], means a great deal more than *talent.*

89. The treasurer *abdicated* [resigned] his office.

90. *Inebriation* [inebriety] is a ruinous vice.

91. A *cablegram** [cable dispatch] was recently received.

92. These virtues were all *illustrated* [exemplified] in his life.

93. Those scandals have robbed him of his *character* [reputation].

---

*A newly-coined word, but will probably be sanctioned.

94. I certainly admire your *candidness* [candor].

95. He can't be *bamboozled* [inveigled] with any suc devices.

96. Temperance is an important *preventative* [pr ventive] of disease.

97. Catholic forms of worship are more *ceremonio* [ceremonial] than are Protestant forms.

98. A *deadly* [deathly] pallor spread over his face.

99. Have you anything *farther* [further] to say?

100. His address was *exceptionably* [exceptionally good.

The following words—in the sense indicated withi the curves of parenthesis—are marked *colloquial* in th Standard Dictionary, and are permissible in informa discourse:—

Bosh (empty talk).
Boss, to (to act the boss).
Breeches (trousers).
Chuck, to (to pitch).
Clip (a blow with the hand).
Cute (shrewd, acute).
Disgruntle, to (to vex by disappointment).
Doctor, to (to repair).
Engineer, to (to work a scheme on).
Fib, to (to speak falsely).
Fishy (improbable).
Fizzle, to (to fail).
Fry (a state of excitement).
Gallowses (suspenders for the trousers).
Happen in, to (to make a chance call).
Heft (weight).
Hunk (a large piece).

Lot (a great deal).
Miff, to (to offend slightly).
Muffish (dull-witted; awkward).
Natty (neatly fine; spruce).
Peeper (the eye).
Rattle, to (to disconcert).
Reckon, to [prov.] (to think).
Rugged (robust; strong).
Scoot (to scurry off).
Shaver (a lad).
Ship (to get rid of).
Sight (a great number).
Snake, to (to drag or pull).
Spin, to (to move swiftly).
Thick (very intimate).
Vim (force or vigor).
Wire (to telegraph).
Yank (to jerk).

The words that follow are marked *slang*—in the sense indicated—in the Standard Dictionary. They are not genuine English words, and must be discarded:—

Boodle (bribe money).
Enthuse, to (to make enthusiastic).
Kid (a young child).
Mossback (a conservative partisan).
Plug (a silk hat).
Pull (an advantage).
Rope in, to (to decoy).
Scalawag (a scapegrace).
Shag-rag (the ragged part of the community).

Sorehead (a person disaffected by disappointment).
Splurge (an obtrusive display).
Sport (a sportsman).
Swell (a showy person).

The following words, though marked *colloquial*—in the sense indicated—in Webster's International Dictionary, can now be regarded as pure English words, being so recognized by the Standard Dictionary:—

Gush (effusive speech).
Coach, to (to train by personal instruction).
Headachy (subject to headache).
Kelter (proper condition).
Know-all (a wiseacre).
Nag, to (to annoy, or tease, in a petty way).
Offish (shy).
Run (a trip).
Scamp, to (to do work imperfectly).
Scare (a fright).
Seedy (shabby looking).
Shaky (easily shaken).
Tantrum (a fit of ill humor).
Tip (a fee).

PART II.

SLIPS IN SYNTAX.

The object of Part II. is to indicate the correct forms of those examples of false grammar to which the most of us are peculiarly liable. Not a few persons, who once mastered the theory of grammar, habitually violate in practise many of the most common grammatical laws. Faultless grammar is the first requisite of good English. It is a degree of perfection of speech to which all can attain. The first step toward a mastery of English style is grammatical accuracy. It is only by extended observation and practise that such accuracy can be crystallized into habit—a habit invaluable to those who appeal to the public through voice or pen.

Syntax is the art of so arranging the words of a sentence as to indicate their true grammatical relations. A violation of the rules of Syntax is called a *Solecism.* Taken collectively, solecisms are commonly called **False Syntax.**

The test of grammatical accuracy is the usage of the most scholarly authors of the present time,—*of the present time,* because the English language, in common with all living languages, is a growing language, and is therefore subject to change from age to age. What was faultless English in the time of Shakespeare and Bacon,

contains not a few expressions that are now solecisms. The few solecisms found in the authorized version of the Scriptures were not solecisms when that version was translated into the vernacular.

Below are given the canons of grammar that are commonly violated. Wherever practicable, illustrative examples are given. Unless otherwise stated, the proper term or form is placed within brackets, immediately after the incorrect word.

CONCORD OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

A finite verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

(*a*) *Each, every, either, neither,* when used as pronouns, take a singular verb; and if represented by a pronoun, the pronoun is singular; as, Each of the boys *is* required to supply *himself* with stationery, Neither of the girls *is* expected to procure *her* own supplies.

(*b*) If each of two subjects connected by *either or,* or by *neither nor,* is singular, they take a singular verb; if both are plural, they take a plural verb; if one is singular and the other plural, the verb agrees with the one nearest. Thus: Neither wheat nor maize *is* grown there; Neither the father nor his sons *were* to blame in the matter; Neither he nor I *am* responsible for the loss.

(*c*) A singular subject followed by an adjunct containing a plural noun takes a singular verb; as, The circulation of books and papers *is* forbidden in Persia.

(*d*) When a verb is placed between its two subjects, it agrees in number and person with the first; as, The leader of the regiment *was* captured, and all his men.

(*e*) The pronoun *you*, whether in the singular or the plural number, always requires a plural verb: John, you *were* late this morning.

(*f*) A collective noun in the singular number takes a singular verb if the collection is viewed as a whole; a plural verb if the members are thought of separately, or as individuals; as, The jury *was* a representative body; The jury *have* not yet agreed upon a verdict; The assembly of the wicked *have* inclosed me (Bible).

(*g*) Two or more nouns representing one person in different offices; or two things so closely related as to be thought of as one, take a singular verb; as, The warrior, the statesman, the philanthropist *was* the first President of our beloved country. Bread and milk *is* a simple and wholesome food. Both bread and milk *are* wholesome. (In the last sentence *bread* and *milk* are regarded as separate articles of food.)

EXAMPLES.

1. Each of the applicants were [was] given a second hearing.

2. Either ignorance or carelessness have [has] caused this.

3. Nobody but the speakers and the officers were [was] allowed on the platform.

4. Thoroughness, not grades, are [is] what we should aim at.

5. Was [were] you present when he spoke?

6. Have [has] either of you seen my book?

7. Nothing but disappointments and rebuffs seem [seems] to await me.

8. Neither of the essays read were [was] commended by the audience.

9. A fine collection of coins were [was] prominently displayed.

10. The general, with all his men, were [was] captured.

11. Prudence, as well as industry, are [is] necessary.

12. Every horse and every dog were [was] loaded with baggage.

13. Not one of all the pupils were [was] able to answer the question.

14. To his indolence, no doubt, is [are] due most of his failures.

15. More than one failure has [have] been caused in that way.

16. Neither the Mayor nor the Sheriff were [was] on the platform.

17. Nearly every one of the boys were [was] promoted.

18. What is [are] the gender and case of these nouns?

19. One after another rose and expressed their [his] disapproval.

20. How could any man get such an idea into their [his] head?

21. Neither of the brothers have [has] yet signed the document.

22. A large part of the exports consist [consists] of grain.

23. Not one in ten of them are [is] likely to be admitted.

24. Nearly every one of the papers they wrote have [has] mistakes in them [it].

25. Has the committee handed in their [its] report?

26. He treats every one as kindly as though they [he] were his relative.

27. Early to bed and early to rise,
Make [makes] a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.

28. Ten dollars were [was] too much.

29. The public is [are] cordially invited.

30. The council consist [consists] of nine members.

31. A block and tackle were [was] used.

32. The ebb and flow of the tides are [is] explained in the second chapter.

33. Bread and butter were [was] all we ate.

34. Bread and butter is [are] sold in the markets.

35. Nine-tenths of his trouble are [is] due to gambling.

36. Justice, as well as mercy, have [has] their [its] origin in God.

37. When a man makes such a mistake they [he] generally try [tries] to conceal it.

38. Neither of us have [has] mistaken their [his] calling.

39. At the head of the procession was [were] McKinley and Hanna.

40. Each of the boys are [is] entitled to a half of the money.

41. Each of these pictures were [was] then cut into two more.

42. Every day, and, in fact, every hour, brings their [its] responsibilities.

43. Nobody but you and me know [knows] where it is.

44. Neither you nor I are [am] subject to these rules.

45. Everybody leave their [leaves his] hat with the

usher when they enter [he enters], and call [calls] for it when they depart [he departs].

46. Every mountain, hill, and valley were [was] clothed with vernal beauty.

47. Their religion, as well as their customs and manners, were [was] strangely misrepresented.

48. The saint, the father, and the husband pray [prays].

(The three subjects refer to but one person.)

49. The council was [were] at variance in their estimates of the probable expense.

50. Either the proprietor or his servants is [are] to blame.

51. Either the owners or the keeper are [is] to blame.

52. The introduction of such beverages as tea and coffee have [has] not been without their [its] effects.

53. A box of oranges were [was] sent us for Christmas.

54. All work and no play make [makes] Jack a dull boy.

55. Will or I were [was] going to call for you.

56. Wisdom, and not wealth, procure [procures] esteem.

57. Everybody must do their [his] work faithfully if they [he] expects to succeed in life.

58. He don't [doesn't] want to try it.

59. The jury was [were] eating dinner.

60. A hundred miles are [is] not far.

INTERROGATIVE AND RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

The interrogative pronoun *who* (used also as a relative pronoun) is declined as follows:—

NOMINATIVE: Who.

POSSESSIVE: Whose.

OBJECTIVE: Whom.

Who and *whom* are in practise frequently confounded. Their grammatical value in the sentence is not so evident as is that of nouns and personal pronouns. Can you see why the bracketed form in each of the following sentences is the correct form?

1. Whom [who] do you think I am?

2. Whom [who] did you say called yesterday?

3. He gave his property to those whom [who] he thought were entitled to it.

4. Mary married a lawyer whom [who] they say is very eloquent.

5. Who [whom] did you take me for?

6. Who [whom] can I trust, if not he [him]?

7. Who [whom] does the baby look like?

8. We did not tell Ada from who [whom] the present came.

9. Who [whom] are you writing to?

10. That is the man whom [who] they said was insane.

11. Who [whom] will you summon?

12. I don't know who [whom] to ask for.

13. Whom [who] do you think will be elected?

14. Who [whom] should I meet yesterday but my friend Smith?

15. Whom [who] did you say sat beside you?

16. I do not know who [whom] he has invited.

17. Who [whom] do you take me to be?

18. Who [whom] is he talking to?

19. She never knew whom [who] it was that spoke to her.

20. Whom [who] does he think it could have been?

21. We like to be with those who [whom] we love and whom [who] we know love us.

22. The lady entered, whom [who], I afterward learned, was his sister.

23. He gave the ring to James, whom [who] he thinks will take care of it.

24. Who [whom] is this for?

25. Nina was annoyed by the presence of Mr. Jekyl, whom [who] her brother insisted should remain to dinner.

Of the relative pronouns the nominative *who*—objective *whom*—is used chiefly of persons; the possessive *whose*, of persons, animals, and things. *Which* is used of animals and things. *That* is more restrictive than *who* or *which*, and is used of persons, animals, and things.

That is never used to introduce a clause that is merely descriptive or progressive; *i. e.*, a clause that would be preceded by a comma, when immediately following its antecedent. "Some grammarians would make the use of *that* obligatory whenever the relative clause is restrictive, reserving *who* and *which* exclusively for clauses that are merely descriptive or progressive. According to them, 'He prayeth best *who* loveth best' ought to be 'He prayeth best *that* loveth best.' But this obligatory use of *that* in restrictive clauses has never been a rule of English speech, and is not likely to become one, partly because of the impossibility of using *that* after a preposition, and partly because of the disagreeable sound of such combinations as, '*That* remark *that* I made yester-

day.' As a rule, euphony decides in restrictive clauses between *who* or *which* or *that.*"—*H. G. Buehler.*

That should always be preferred to *who* and *which* in the following cases:—

(*a*) When the antecedent embraces both persons and things: "The sailors and the ship *that* were lost at sea."

(*b*) When the antecedent is modified by an adjective in the superlative degree: "Alexander was the *greatest* warrior *that* the ancient world produced."

(*c*) Usually when the antecedent is modified by such adjectives as *every, very, all, any, first, last,* and *next.* (The last three of these adjectives are superlatives, but novices often fail to recognize them as such.)

"Every book *that* is in the library is the gift of Mr. Blank."

(*d*) *That* must not be used when the antecedent is modified by *that: "That* question *which* [not *that*] he asked me," etc.

(*e*) After indefinite pronouns (*many, others, several, some, those, few,* etc.), modern authorities prefer *who:* "Those *who* know can testify."

(*f*) *That* is commonly preferred when the antecedent has no modifier except the relative clause: "Money *that* is earned is generally prized."

Justify the bracketed relative pronoun in each of the following sentences:—

1. Mr. Cleveland was the only President who [that] served two non-consecutive terms.

2. Do you know that man that [who] is standing by the window?

3. I have done many things which [that] I should not have done.

4. Shakespeare was the most versatile man who [that] Europe has yet produced.

5. That is the lady that [who] spoke to us yesterday.

6. Those that [who] do their best usually win.

7. The horse and the rider who [that] were lost in the desert have been found.

8. The trees, that [which] are mostly walnut, were planted by my grandfather.

9. At the entrance I met an usher, that [who] procured me a seat.

10. Time which [that] is lost can never be reclaimed.

11. Man is the only animal which [that] laughs and weeps.

12. There are others that [who] can testify.

13. The dog which [that] bit the man has been killed.

14. He who [that] hath ears to hear, let him hear.

15. The first person whom [that] I met was John.

16. We generally like those that [who] admire us.

17. Every man who [that] entered the service was a brave man.

18. Was it you or the wind who [that] shut the door?

19. It was necessity which [that] taught me Greek.

20. It was the General's horse, and not himself, which [that] fell in battle.

THE PREDICATE OF A RELATIVE PRONOUN.

One is peculiarly liable to mistake the number of a verb that has for its subject a relative pronoun. The number of a relative pronoun is determined by the number of its antecedent. Hence, when writing the verb of a relative clause, one must look back to the antecedent

of the relative pronoun in order to determine the number form of said verb.

In the following sentences, note the reason for the verb forms placed in brackets:—

1. This is one of the most interesting books that was [were] ever written.

2. Mark is one of the restless boys who is [are] always impatient to do something.

3. It was one of the most attractive programs that has [have] yet been given in this hall.

4. She is one of the most successful teachers that has [have] ever taught in our district.

5. One of his many excellent traits that comes [come] to my mind is his gentleness.

6. She is one of the few writers who is [are] destined to be long remembered.

7. My home is one of those that commands [command] a view of the lake.

8. In Liberty's name have been committed some of the most horrible crimes which [that] stains [stain] the pages of history.

9. I look upon it as one of the most feasible schemes that has [have] been proposed.

10. It is one of the words that adds [add] *es* to the singular to form the plural.

THIS, THAT, THESE, THOSE.

Of the singular adjectives *this* and *that, these* and *those* are their respective plural forms.

The following sentences illustrate the misuse of the plural forms for the singular forms:—

1. Those [that] kind of grapes are [is] best.

2. Those [that] sort of people are [is] never popular.

3. These [this] kind of roses do not [does not] thrive in this climate.

4. Those [that] kind of trees is deciduous.

5. How do you like those [that] sort of collars?

6. I am fond of these [this] kind of nuts.

7. What do you think of these [this] sort of pens?

I USED FOR Me.

I is sometimes erroneously used for *me,* when coordinate with *you* or with a noun, after a preposition or a transitive verb.

Note the correction indicated in the following sentences:—

1. Between you and I [me], I don't believe a word of it.

2. The Saviour gave His life for you and I [me].

3. Please pass the bread to Harry and I [me].

4. The teacher commended John and I [me] for punctuality.

5. The minister spoke to Mother and I [me], as he walked by, this morning.

COMPARISON.

If only two persons or things are compared, the comparative degree of the adjective must be used; if more than two, the superlative.

1. Which is the most [more] desirable, health or wealth?

2. My wife is the younger [youngest] of three sisters.

3. "Of two such lessons, why forget
The noblest [nobler] and the manliest [manlier] one?"

4. Of two evils, choose the least [less].

5. Which is the heaviest [heavier], hers or mine?

6. The smallest [smaller] of the twins is the most [more] active.

7. Of the two, Homer was the greatest [greater] genius; Virgil, the greatest [greater] artist.

When a comparative with *than* is used, the thing compared must be excluded from the rest of a class to which it belongs. This may be done by inserting the word *other.*

When the superlative is used with *than,* the particular term must be included in the class of things with which it is compared. The word *other* must then be omitted.

Note the following examples:—

1. London is larger than any [other] city in Europe.

2. Of all other [omit other] beings, man has the greatest reason for gratitude.

3. No [other] city in France has suffered so much from fire as Lyons.

4. Texas is the largest of any other [omit other] state in the Union.

5. China is older than any [other] nation in the world.

6. Of all other [omit other] diseases, leprosy is the most malignant.

7. Jumbo was larger than any [other] elephant ever captured.

8. The Amazon is larger than any [other] river in the world.

9. Victoria's reign was longer than any [other] British sovereign's reign.

POSSESSIVE CASE BEFORE A PARTICIPLE.

The possessive case of the noun or pronoun should precede the participle, when the noun or pronoun represents the active agent.

The italicized possessive in each of the following examples illustrates this requirement:—

1. I have little hope of *his* passing the examination.
2. What is to prevent *his* finding out who did it?
3. I have just now heard of *John's* being engaged in teaching.
4. You remember *mother's* having made a Christmas dinner for the newsboys, do you not?
5. The description of *Rip Van Winkle's* awakening is the most interesting part of the story.
6. I can not endure the thought of *their* being left homeless in the world.
7. What do you think of *my* studying French?
8. Frank's success will depend largely upon *his* being diligent in application.
9. Edward's father opposed *his* entering the navy.
10. The fact of *his* being in the street at so late an hour is very suspicious.

THE CASE OF NOUNS OR PRONOUNS AFTER THE VERB **TO BE.**

The noun or pronoun that follows the verb *to be* (as its complement), takes the same case as the noun or pronoun that precedes it (as its subject).

The examples below are illustrative:—

1. Is it him [he] you wish to see?

2. It might have been him [he] who did it.
3. Do you think it was them [they]?
4. Who is there? It is me [I].
5. Do you think it was her [she]?
6. Who [whom] do you take me to be?

(Whom is the complement of the infinitive *to be,* and hence takes the same case as the *me* preceding *to be.* A finite verb can never have a subject in the objective case, but an infinitive *may* have.)

7. Should any one be punished, it will not be her [she], and it will be me [I].
8. I supposed it to be he [him.]
9. I think it was her [she] who sent it.
10. Who [whom] did you take my uncle to be?
11. I proved it to be they [them] who were responsible for the accident.
12. Was it her [she] you saw?
13. If I were him [he] I would not desist.
14. Was it them [they] who opposed the scheme?
15. It was either her [she] or her sister.
16. He knew it was us [we].
17. He knew it to be we [us].
18. It was me [I] that gave the alarm.
19. If you were me [I], would you attempt it?
20. He knew that it was me [I].
21. He knew it to be I [me].

Below are given further illustrations of the right use of the nominative and the objective forms of the personal pronouns. Remember that the correct forms are placed within brackets; the incorrect forms immediately precede the brackets.

1. His brother is darker than him [he].
2. Let he [him] who can, solve this problem.

3. To Gertrude and he [him] belongs the credit.

4. With James and he [him] I have trouble.

5. She invited them all, he [him] among the rest.

6. What else can you expect from such as them [they]?

7. Mother told you and I [me] to start early.

8. There is but little difference between you and he [him].

9. Everybody was on time except we [us].

10. The Smiths, as well as us [we], are invited.

11. Us [we] boys went swimming yesterday.

12. They invited you and I [me] to go driving.

13. They [them] that whisper I will punish.

14. It could not have been them [they], for they were absent.

15. Everybody went except she [her] and her cousin.

16. The man was afraid to let you or I [me] drive the colt.

17. That is a new doctrine for we [us] Methodists.

18. He [him] that overcometh will I make a pillar in the temple.

19. He [him] that cometh unto Me I will in nowise cast out.

20. Uncle Joe expects you and I [me] to meet him.

21. Girls like you and she [her] should know better.

22. Let none handle the sacred vessels but they [them] who are clean.

23. Few speakers could have done as well as them [they].

24. But for you and I [me] he would have been killed.

25. Who was the gentleman standing near Tom and I [me]?

26. If I were him [he] I would never be seen there.

27. He has given away half of his property to no one knows who [whom].

28. They [them] that obey, I will reward.

29. He [him] who gives but a cup of cold water, will the Saviour remember.

30. Him [he] who gives but a cup of cold water, will be remembered by the Saviour.

ARTICLE BEFORE A REPRESENTATIVE NOUN.

A noun used to represent a class or genus should be preceded by *the,* and not by *a* or *an.* Thus:—

1. *The* horse [not *a* horse] is the most useful animal.
2. *The* apple is the most widely diffused of all fruits.
3. *The* oak is indigenous to all lands.
4. *The* bee and *the* ant are the busiest of insects.
5. *The* house-fly has its uses.
6. *The* trout lives chiefly in mountain streams.

LIE, LAY, SIT, SET, RISE, RAISE.

The principal parts of the verbs *lie* and *lay,* of *sit* and *set,* of *rise* and *raise,* are often strangely confounded. Hence, I give their principal parts below. Then follows a list of sentences illustrating the correct use of the principal parts of each verb.

Present.	Past.	Present Participle.	Past Participle.
Lie	lay	lying	lain
Lay	laid	laying	laid
Sit	sat	sitting	sat
Set	set	setting	set
Rise	rose	rising	risen
Raise	raised	raising	raised

REMARK.—The first verb in each of these three pairs of verbs is *intransitive;* the *second, transitive.* The right form of the verb in each of the sentences below is *italicized.*

1. Let him *sit* there.
2. I found it *lying* on the table.
3. Slowly and sadly we *laid* him down.
4. During the storm yesterday the ship *lay* at anchor.
5. The doctor told me to *lie* down, and I *lay* down.
6. You would better *lie* down for a while.
7. He told me to *lay* the book down, and I *laid* it down.
8. We have three *sitting* hens. We *set* them last week.
9. I *sat* in my chair, and as I dozed some one *set* a vase of flowers on the table by my side.
10. He has *sat* all day in silence.
11. I have *set* a guard over my tongue.
12. After I had *lain* down, I remembered that I had left my purse *lying* by the open window.
13. The footman was so weary that he *lay* down in his clothes.
14. I wish you would *sit* still while I write the address.
15. The river *rose* a foot during the night.
16. The *rising* river *raised* the bridge about two inches.
17. All the streams have been rapidly *rising.*
18. She could not get her bread to *rise* properly.
19. Mother said that her bread had *risen* nicely.
20. The boy *raised* himself up before I could reach him.
21. He has *lain* in bed long enough.

22. He has *laid* out the grounds.

23. Dapple had to *lie* down on all fours before the lad could bestride him.

24. The ship has *lain* at anchor since Monday.

25. He looks as if he had *lain* there all night.

26. I *lay* in bed just eight hours last night.

27. The carpet does not *lie* smooth on the floor.

28. Your coat *sits* well.

29. He *set* the basket of eggs on the table.

30. *Set* the chair in the corner, and let it *sit*.

31. You *set* your hens and then let them *sit*.

32. After a hen has been *set*, she is a *sitting* hen.

HOW TO FORM THE POSSESSIVE CASE OF NOUNS.

All singular nouns—a few proper and abstract nouns excepted—and all plural nouns that do not end in *s*, take the possessive form by the addition of an apostrophe and *s* (*'s*); all plural nouns that end in *s*, take the possessive form by the addition of the apostrophe (') only.

(*a*) The important exceptions to the first part of the foregoing rule are indicated in the following phrases: Moses' law; for Jesus' sake; conscience' sake; goodness' sake; Xerxes' army; Demosthenes' orations; Euripides' dramas.

(*b*) In compound nouns the sign of the possessive is added to the last part only; as, my *father-in-law's* farm; the *attorney-general's* office.

(*c*) When several nouns denote joint ownership, the possessive sign is added to the last noun only; as, *Bryant and Stratton's* Business College; *John, Paul,* and *Alice's* uncle; *Gunn* and *Ferguson's* hardware store.

(*d*) If joint possession is not implied, or if a disjunctive word is used between the possessive terms, each one should take the possessive sign; as, *Mr. Smith's* and *Mr. Hall's* houses are both new; *Men's* and *boys'* hats are cheaper than ever before; She would listen to neither her *father's* nor her *teacher's* advice.

(*e*) The apostrophe must never be used in forming the possessive of personal, relative, or interrogative pronouns. The indefinite pronouns *one, another,* and *other* form the possessive regularly; thus, one's duty; another's claims; other's (singular); others' (plural).

(*f*) There are two recognized modes of forming the possessive of *any one else, somebody else,* etc. Thus: *Any one's else* hat, or *any one else's* hat; *everybody's else* time, or *everybody else's* time. The latter form is now generally preferred.

COMPOUND NOUNS.

Note the following list of plural compound nouns. Only the noun part of a compound word is made plural, whether that be the first or the last part of the word.

First part plural.	*Last part plural.*
Attorneys-general	Brigadier-generals
postmasters-general	major-generals
auditors-general	lieutenant-generals
courts-martial	rear-admirals
commanders-in-chief	mouse-traps
lookers-on	pailfuls
fathers-in-law	cupfuls
brothers-in-law	

Both parts plural.

Men-servants
women-servants
knights-templars

REMARK.—All the foregoing plural compounds take the possessive by adding the possessive sign to the *last* part. Those ending in *s* add the apostrophe only; those not ending in *s* add the apostrophe and *s*.

SPECIAL NUMBER FORMS OF NOUNS.

The following nouns are usually treated as plurals:—

Tongs, pincers, tweezers, scissors, shears, snuffers, breeches, trousers, drawers (garment), nuptials, victuals, dregs, scales, ashes, oats, assets, proceeds, riches, vitals, entrails, stilts, suds, aborigines.

The nouns in the following list are generally singular:—

News, wages, mathematics (and other names of sciences ending in *ics*), gallows, tidings, United States.

The following nouns ending in *o* are made plural by adding *es* to the singular. Thus:—

Potatoes, tomatoes, mottoes, negroes, mulattoes, tornadoes, calicoes, cargoes, buffaloes, echoes, heroes, mosquitoes, volcanoes, flamingoes.

The following by adding *s* only. Thus:—

Solos, tyros, cantos, stilettos, bravos, duodecimos, quartos, octavos, pianos, embryos, oratorios, nuncios, folios, grottos, provisos, banjos, mementos, lassos, halos, juntos, casinos, dynamos, chromos, vetos.

WILL, SHALL.

The nice distinction that should be made between the auxiliaries *will* and *shall* is now often disregarded. *Shall* is seldom, if ever, used for *will*, but *will* for *shall*.

Will in the first person expresses a *promise*, sets forth a *determination*, or the speaker's intention to *control*. Thus: "I *will* [I promise to] pay you to-morrow." "I *will* [am determined to] be heard in this matter." "We *will* [promise to] lend you the team on Monday."

Shall in the first person, and *will* in the second and third persons, merely express *simple futurity*, or *announce future action*. Thus: "I *shall* go to the meeting to-night." "I *shall* be glad to meet your friend." "We *shall* begin to make hay next week." "Father *will* soon be fifty." "The men *will* get their pay to-night." "You *will* find him trustworthy." "He *will* accompany his parents."

Shall in the second and third persons shows that the speaker *intends to control*. Thus: "You *shall* give me a hearing." "He *shall* go, rain or shine." "Be assured that he *shall* not see me." "They *shall* do the chores, whether they like to or not."

Shall is the proper auxiliary in the first person whenever a question is asked. *Will* must never be used interrogatively in the first person. "*Shall* I help you?" "When *shall* I get well, doctor?" "What time *shall* we get there?" "When *shall* I see you again?"

Will, in an interrogative sentence, and having a subject in the second person, asks concerning the wish of the one addressed. Thus: "*Will* you have an orange?" "*Will* you walk with me to the office?" "*Will* you have your sleeping-room heated to-night?"

Will, in an interrogative sentence, in the third person, asks concerning the *purpose* or *future action* of another or others. Thus: *"Will* they be willing to help us?" *"Will* he be there?" "How *will* he carry out his plan?"

Shall, in the second person, when a question is asked, asks concerning the intention or the future action of the one spoken to. Thus: *"Shall* you go to the city this summer?" *"Shall* you prosecute the offender?" *"Shall* you attend the exercises to-night?"

Shall, in an interrogative sentence, in the third person, asks concerning the *will* or *judgment* of another. Thus: *"Shall* he come, too?" *"Shall* they return it to-morrow?"

"Official courtesy, in order to avoid the semblance of compulsion," says Mr. Ayres, "conveys its commands in the *you-will* form instead of the strictly grammatical *you-shall* form. It says, for example, 'You will proceed to Key West, where you will find further instructions awaiting you.'"

Would and *should* are governed by the same rules as *will* and *shall.*

To emphasize and clarify these distinctions still further, the following illustrative examples are added:—

1. I will [shall] be eighteen in July.
2. You shall [will] have a pleasant day for your trip.
3. When will [shall] we three meet again?
4. I will [shall] be glad to see you there.
5. If I do not hasten, I will [shall] be late.
6. He thinks he shall [will] be able to go, after all.
7. It is probable that we will [shall] be unable to attend.
8. Will [shall] I have another chance to try?

9. I will [shall] be happy to accept your invitation.

10. I shall [will] not comply. (Determination.)

11. You will [shall] do what I wish. (Threat.)

12. I shall [will] go, and nobody will [shall] prevent me.

13. I will [shall] feel greatly obliged if you shall [will] tell me.

14. Shall [will] there be time to call at the office?

15. I would [should] much prefer to stay at home.

16. He promised that it would [should] not occur again.

17. I fear that we will [shall] have bad weather.

18. How will [shall] you go about it?

19. When will [shall] you begin?

20. Where will [shall] you be on Sunday?

21. We would [should] have gone if it had been pleasant.

22. I would [should] like to go to the beach.

23. I would [should] go hunting to-day if I were home.

24. I hoped that I would [should] meet him.

25. I would [should] not like to remain there long, and shall [will] not unless compelled to.

26. I feared that we would [should] have bad weather.

27. I would [should] be glad to have you call.

28. I knew I would [should] dislike teaching.

29. I would [should] prefer to see it before buying it.

30. I fear that I will [shall] lose it.

31. I hope that I will [shall] not have to go alone.

32. I believe that I will [shall] have the measles.

33. Shall [will] he be willing to receive us?

34. You shall [will] find him honest.

35. If I were he, I would [should] be ashamed to go there again.

36. I shall [will] not disappoint you the next time. (Promise.)

37. I would [should] be obliged if you should [would] let me use it.

38. If we were better, we would [should] be happier.

Distinguish between:—

1. You shall (will) know the result by four o'clock.
2. I shall (will) not hear his explanation.
3. We will (shall) call to-morrow.
4. I shall (will) not be the only one to suffer.
5. Will (shall) there be any extra charge for gymnasium practise?
6. Do you think I would (should) accept it?
7. If John would (should) help me, we could finish it to-day.
8. You will (shall) know my decision to-morrow.
9. If he refused to comply, he would (should) be punished.
10. What did he say the admission would (should) be?
11. They will (shall) not see me.
12. Mary will (shall) not go.
13. I will (shall) be the first to make the experiment.
14. He thought he would (should) be present.

MAY—CAN.

May expresses permission or probability; *can* expresses power. The same distinction must be made between *might* and *could.*

Can is often misused for may, and *could* for might.

The proper use of these words is indicated in the examples that follow:—

1. Can [may] I have the use of your pencil for a minute or two?

2. Can [may] I have more of the melon, mother?

3. If I had more to give, I might [could] do more for the poor.

4. Can [may] I look through your magazine?

5. Can [may] I leave my seat for a few minutes?

6. They said I could [might] sit with you to-day.

7. Can [may] Arthur and I be excused from the physical culture exercises to-day?

GENERAL TRUTHS.

General or unchangeable truths should be expressed in the present tense. Thus:—

1. It has been proved that the earth was [is] round.

2. He told me that the cube root of 27 was [is] three.

3. What did you say your uncle's name was [is]?

4. Long ago it was discovered that the cause of the tides was [is] the moon.

5. Many years ago I was taught that frost was [is] frozen dew.

6. Ancient philosophers knew that the air had [has] weight.

7. Who did you say it was [is] that you met this morning?

8. In what State did you say Sioux City was [is]?

9. No one in America knew what tea was [is] two hundred years ago.

10. How far did he say it was [is] from New York to Boston?

11. Plato believed that the soul was [is] immortal.

12. The ancients believed that the earth was [is] the center of the universe.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

The subjunctive mode expresses action, being, or state, not as a fact, but as something merely thought of. The verb in the subjunctive mode does not change its form for the person and number of its subject, except for the subject *thou,* in the past tense of the verb *be.* The conjugation of the verb *be* in the subjunctive mode differs from the conjugation of the same verb in the indicative mode, as follows:—

Present		**Past**	
Indicative	**Subjunctive**	**Indicative**	**Subjunctive**
I *am*	If I *be*	I *was*	If I *were*
Thou *art*	If thou *be*	Thou *wast*	If thou *wert*
He *is*	If he *be*	He *was*	If he *were*
We *are*	If we *be*	We *were*	If we *were*
You *are*	If you *be*	You *were*	If you *were*
They *are*	If they *be*	They *were*	If they *were*

A clause containing a verb in the subjunctive mode is generally, though not always, introduced by one of the conjunctions, *if, though, unless, lest, that,* and the like. The subjunctive mode does not always require a conjunction. The clause, "If he had been there," may be put thus: "Had he been there," etc., thus avoiding the use of the conjunction *if.* A wish, which is usually expressed subjunctively, is not generally introduced by a formal conjunction.

REMARK.—A clause put in the *form* of a condition, and yet expressing a *fact,* requires the indicative, ~~or~~ the ~~potential~~ mode.

The subjunctive mode is most frequently used to express:—

(*a*) *Future contingency:* If it *rain,* we shall not go; If I *be* well, I will [promise] go with you; Though he *forsake* me, yet will I not forsake him.

(*b*) *A mere supposition:* If I *were* the chairman, I should not entertain such a motion; If I *were* not Alexander, I *would* be Diogenes.

(*c*) *A mere wish:* I wish I *were* a genius; O, that he *were* here; I wish I *were* well.

(*d*) *An intention not yet carried out:* The sentence is that you *be* fined one hundred dollars, etc.; The decision of the chair is that this question *be* discussed further at our next meeting.

The following sentences illustrate the uses of the subjunctive mode. The subjunctive verbs are italicized:—

1. Though He *slay* me, yet will I trust Him.

2. I will accommodate you, if I *be* able.

3. If I *were* sure of what you tell me, I should not hesitate in the matter.

4. Though I *were* to implore his forgiveness, he would not grant it.

5. *Were* I not your friend, I would not advise you as I do.

6. If Thou *hadst been* here, my brother would not have died.

7. Thy money *perish* with thee.

8. If it *be* possible, as much as lieth in you, live peaceably with all men.

9. If I *were* an American, as I am an Englishman, etc.

10. If she *were* going, I would go.

11. I wish mother *were* at home.

12. Though I *be summoned* before the court, I will not testify.

13. Though he *were* the king himself, he could not release you.

14. *Had* he *been* prudent, he would not have blundered.

15. Though he *fall,* he shall not be utterly cast down.

16. Whether she *go* or *stay,* my plan will not be changed.

17. If the wind *blow* too hard, we shall capsize.

18. I should be sorry if John *were* to fail.

19. If he *promise,* he will perform.

20. If a man *smite* his servant and he die, he shall surely be put to death.

The clauses in the following sentences are conditional only in *form;* they express *facts* or *actual events,* and the verb in each clause is therefore in the indicative mode.

1. Though Thackeray *was* born in India, he was not a Hindu, but an Englishman.

2. Though Texas *has,* of all the States, the greatest area, it has by no means the greatest population.

3. Though Abraham *is* the father of the faithful, he was a man of like passions with ourselves.

4. If it *is* raining, I will go anyhow.

5. Though Burke *was* the most learned publicist of his day, he was not by nature an orator.

6. If books *are* cheap, a fourth of the people never read one.

THE PRESENT AND THE PERFECT INFINITIVE.

These two forms of the infinitive must not be confounded. After a verb in the past tense, use the present, not the perfect, infinitive. The sentences below indicate this error and its correction:—

1. He had intended to have visited [visit] me.
2. It was the officer's duty to have protected [protect] the patrons.
3. I expected to have written [write] to the proprietor.
4. We did no more than it was our duty to have done [do].
5. He went earlier than he expected to have gone [go].
6. They intended to have returned [return] in April.
7. I had hoped to have met [meet] you at the station.
8. The general intended to have examined [examine] the ground before the battle.

CARE IN THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS.

The errors made in the use of prepositions are by no means few. That preposition must be selected which accords with the noun, adjective, or verb with which it is used. Common errors in using prepositions and the correction are indicated in the following sentences:—

1. He is accused with [of] a grave offense.
2. He is too greedy for [of] popularity.
3. He sympathizes now for [with] his rival.
4. He bargained about [for] the house for a long time.
5. The decision is acceptable with [to] all the heirs.

6. Is this disagreeable for [to] you?

7. There is need for [of] more money.

8. What greater incentives for [to] his best efforts could the boy have?

9. I connect this line to [with] that.

10. He is yoked to [with] virtue itself.

11. May I ask from [of] you a favor?

12. It is not agreeable for [to] him to meet his former comrades.

13. He is destined for [to] high service.

14. He is angry with [at] the shameful treatment to which he was subjected.

15. He is angry at [with] his brother. (Angry *at* a thing, *with* a person.)

16. It is made with [of] the best material.

17. He frowned on [at] me. He frowned at [on] my conduct.

18. She is possessed with [of] a large estate.

19. We are witnesses for [to] the truth.

20. She is careless with [of] her valuables.

21. They concede with [to] my proposition.

22. He is emulous for [of] honors.

23. All students must conform with [to] the regulations.

24. The man grappled at [with] the burglar.

25. They mingle in [with] good society.

26. True Christians are assimilated with [to] Christ.

27. She is descended of [from] a good family.

28. The more one gives for [to] this cause, the greater will be his reward.

29. A lazy person is one who has a strong aversion from [to] effort of any kind.

30. "For my part I can not say that Shelley's poetry, except by [in] snatches and fragments, has the value of the good work of Wordsworth or Byron."—*Matthew Arnold.*

31. I disagree to [with] you. I disagree with [to] that statement.

32. Pure water consists in [of] hydrogen and oxygen.

33. True greatness consists of [in] character.

34. I concur with [in] what you say. (Concur *with* a person.)

35. I correspond once a week to [with] my brother, who lives in Boston.

36. He parted with [from] all his acquaintances. He parted from [with] all his property.

37. She was overwhelmed by [with] grief. The detachment of soldiers was overwhelmed with [by] the enemy.

38. He was killed with [by] the sword. He was killed by [with] dissipation.

39. I differ with [from] you in size or in complexion. I differ either *from* or *with* [the latter preferable] you in opinion or judgment.

40. He divided his property between [among] his five sons.

41. He divided his property among [between] his two sons.

42. He has not yet succeeded in reconciling his practise to [with] his theory.

43. Sinners become reconciled with [to] God.

44. He dissents with [from] my opinion.

45. The President was accompanied with [by] the members of his cabinet. We are happy when accom-

panied by [with] noble thoughts. The music was not accompanied by [with] the words.

46. The farmers were almost penniless, as the bad season had disappointed them with [of] their crops.

47. I was disappointed of [with] the book; it came short of my expectations.

48. Life is often compared with [to] a river.

49. My hat does not compare to [with] yours in quality.

50. He jumped from the fence in [into] the water.

51. The teacher became impatient at [with] the pupil.

52. The audience became impatient with [at] the delay.

53. We must attend upon [to] our lessons.

54. The guard attended to [upon] the king. The servant attends to [upon] his master.

55. He was vexed at [with] me. He was vexed with [at] my conduct.

56. He remonstrates against [with] me. He remonstrates with [against] my mode of procedure.

57. He lives in [at] Hydesville; lives *in* Scotland, or London, or Chicago.

58. He was seized with [by] a policeman. He was seized by [with] pneumonia.

59. He smiled at [on] the child's sweet innocence. He smiled on [at] my awkwardness.

60. They laughed at [with] me, because of my good fortune. They laughed with [at] me because of my crude mistakes.

61. He frowned on [at] me. He frowned at [on] my ill behavior.

REMARK.—"Some authorities object to the use of a preposition as the final word of a sentence, but such

usage is in accord with the genius of all the Teutonic languages."—*Standard Dictionary.*

The nicest judgment, however, is necessary in determining whether the sentence would be improved or impaired by placing the preposition at the close of the sentence. Seldom, if ever, should such phrases as, *at least, at any rate, at all events, in short, in truth, in fact, to be sure,* etc., be placed at the close of a sentence.

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES OF FAULTY SYNTAX, WITH CORRECTIONS INDICATED.

The student should give a reason for each correction.

1. I will [shall] be a hundred miles from home by to-morrow.

2. Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits delight [delights] some people.

3. They hoped that this would happen to you and I [me].

4. The gentlemen and carriages which [that] we saw have disappeared.

5. It has been declared that the earth did [does] not move around the sun.

6. The number of inhabitants in the State have [has] greatly increased in the last decade.

7. He laid [lay] down in the shade where we formerly had set [sat].

8. The mechanism of clocks were [was] totally unknown a few centuries ago.

9. One of the most trying things that is [are] known to life, is to suffer alone and unjustly.

10. If you wish, I shall [will] visit you.

11. Neither of the adventurers saw their [his] native land again.

12. He sat [set] the cage down, and the bird cried between [after] each mouthful, "Polly wants a cracker."

13. Try and [to] remember all these rules.

14. Will [shall] you be likely to meet the town marshal?

15. Of the two horses, the smallest [smaller] is the most [more] valuable.

16. Every one of the boys tell [tells] the same story.

17. What did you say was [is] the capital of Idaho?

18. If any pupil does not know the reason, they [he] should say so.

19. Us [we] boys are organizing a reading circle.

20. Everybody says that they [he] never before saw such a neat [so neat a] housekeeper.

21. No news have [has] yet been received from the seat of war.

22. How does my coat set [sit] across the shoulders?

23. These plants belong to different genuses [genera].

24. That appears to be the most universal [general] opinion.

25. How different this climate is to [from] what we expected.

26. Cut a sheet of paper in [into] four equal pieces.

27. What village was [is] that we just passed through?

28. If any one wishes to see me, let them [him] call after one o'clock.

29. Though he reproves [reprove] me, yet will I honor him.

30. Unless he takes [take] better care of his health, he will not live long.

31. Can [may] I have the key to the book-room?

32. Every intelligent student ought to use their [his] influence in behalf of such a scheme.

33. If it don't [doesn't] come before night, I shall have to go for it myself.

34. He said that he had lain [laid] the book on the table.

35. He would allow no one to open their [his] eyes while at prayers.

36. Neither he nor his father were [was] educated [trained] to be lawyers [a lawyer].

37. The old method is quite different in character than [from] that now in use.

38. I confided the secret in [to] my brother.

39. Happy the teacher whose pupils confide to [in] him.

40. The conspirators confided the execution of their plot in [to] the oldest of their number.

41. He may return by to-morrow, but we can not wait on [for] him.

42. His memoranda is [are] intensely interesting.

43. I found not less [fewer] than ten mistakes in it.

44. I wish it wasn't [were not] so far to town.

45. It makes no difference whom [who] you thought it was [is].

46. He said he would vote for whoever [whomever] the convention would nominate.

47. No one could act fairer [more fairly] than her [she].

48. *Ch* in *chaise* have [has] the sound of *sh*.

49. What kind of a [expunge *a*] noun did you say virtue was [is]?

50. *Blow* is used both as a transitive and [insert *an*] intransitive verb.

51. Was it a man [man's] or a woman's voice that we heard?

52. Neither you nor I are [am] in the wrong.

53. That's the pupil whom [who] most of them thought would get the prize.

54. Nobody but you and Tom were [was] in the room since.

55. She spoke so slow and distinct [slowly and distinctly] that I caught every word.

56. You can [may] take any book that you find laying [lying] on the table.

57. Be sure and [to] find out why he did not come.

58. Are [is] either of these towns marked on the latest maps?

59. Do you know who [whom] he thought her to be?

60. This is one of the few subjects that seems [seem] to be given due attention in the schools.

61. The mishap is likely to be attended by [with] serious consequences.

62. The candidates were very liberal with [of] promises before the election.

63. I shall divide it in [into] four equal parts.

64. The judge said he could not entirely acquit the defendant from [of] blame.

65. How do you reconcile this assertion to [with] your previous one?

66. How many is [are] there?

67. No matter how many there was [were].

68. Every leaf, every bud, and every drop of water teem [teems] with life.

69. This is one of the best treatises on money and coins that has [have] appeared in any language.

70. Each boy and each girl were [was] commended.

71. Let them depend each on their [his] own efforts.

72. If the farm was [were] larger, I would sell it.

73. Serious injuries seldom or [if] ever occur in the game.

74. Which is the cheapest [cheaper], to go by Omaha or by Kansas City?

75. How will [shall] I know who [whom] to look to?

76. It was Bacon's intention to have dedicated [dedicate] it to Prince Henry.

77. I suppose it doesn't really deceive people any more than "Arabian Nights" or "Gulliver's Travels" do [does].

78. And who [whom] do you think I saw standing upon the bridge?

79. Any thief, . . . be he whom [who] he may, should be hung [hanged].

80. An Irishman who [whom], like Priestly, the Republicans delighted to honor.

81. Among the numerous events which are [is] each in their [its] turn the most direful and melancholy.

82. "Neither Pope nor Council are [is] on a level with the Apostles."—*J. H. Newman.*

83. The soldiers look superbly [superb] in their new uniforms.

84. Let his colaborers be whom [who] they may.

85. I do not know as [that] I can recall his statement.

86. More than one failure has [have] resulted from carelessness.

87. Sufficient data has [have] been given to sólve it.

88. I meant to have given [give] you several of those [that] kind of questions.

89. I mean Noah Webster, he [him] who wrote the dictionary.

90. The rod he used was about that [so] long.

91. He found the river had raised [risen] several inches.

92. He evidently didn't know what it was [is] to be afraid.

93. She surely don't [doesn't] expect to tell who [whom] I got it from.

94. "It is stronger and in every way superior to the other one," should be, "It is stronger than the other one, and in every way superior to it."

95. The Prime Minister, with the Lord Chief Justice, were [was] admitted to the King's presence.

96. I am one of those persons who [that] can not describe what I [they] have not seen.

97. He is a person whom [who] we all know will represent the college with honor.

98. Four elephant proboscises [proboscides] were unearthed.

99. "He lives as far, if not farther, from the city as you do," should be, "He lives as far from the city as you do, if not farther."

100. The state of things is this: That there is [are] more than one Christian college in the State, and that more than one Christian college is [are] needed.

Distinguish between:—

1. The tailor and clothier,

and

The tailor and the clothier.

2. I found the way easy,
and
I found the way easily.

3. She sings as well as plays,
and
She sings as well as she plays.

4. William and Henry's books,
and
William's and Henry's books.

5. Few are qualified to serve,
and
A few are qualified to serve.

6. Do you think I would accept it?
and
Do you think I should accept it?

7. Just think of him engaging in such work,
and
Just think of his engaging in such work.

8. Much depends on the teacher grading the papers,
and
Much depends on the teacher's grading the papers.

9. I remember an anecdote of the Judge that may interest you,
and
I remember an anecdote of the Judge's that may interest you.

10. She merely glanced at the answer,
and
She glanced at the answer merely.

11. If he has it, he will give it to you,
and
If he have it, he will give it to you.

12. Even Father offered to help,
and
Father even offered to help.

13. The teacher took great pains to explain everything,
and
The teacher took great pains in explaining everything.

14. She was the greatest actor of her day,
and
She was the greatest actress of her day.

15. If he goes, I go,
and
If he go, I shall go.

16. The fourth and last volume,
and
The fourth and the last volume.

17. Half a dollar,
and
A half dollar.

18. You will know the result to-morrow,
and
You shall know the result to-morrow.

19. He taught there for twenty years,
and
He has taught there for twenty years.

20. I shall not be the only one to suffer loss,
and
I will not be the only one to suffer loss.

THE CRITICS VS. USAGE.

Dr. Brainerd Kellogg, in his "Text-Book on Rhetoric," cites quite a long list of words and phrases that, used in a certain sense, have always been condemned by writers on grammar and rhetoric, but which are abundantly sanctioned by the practise of the "best authors, British and American, now living, or, if dead, living until recently." "We have carefully read fifty of these authors," continues Dr. Kellogg, "and read three hundred pages of each. Just what these men by habitual use teach on these points and what they thus declare to be good English we have noted.

"It is in place here under the head of Propriety, to speak of a few of the words and phrases which usage says we *may* employ, but which these critics tell us we *may not, must not,* use. We wish that the corrections here made might spread as widely as the errors taught have extended."

Agreeably with Professor Kellogg's "wish," I give below the results of his investigation:—

1. We *may* use *such* before an adjective and its noun, even when *such* does not modify the noun alone; we are not restricted to *so* in such cases.

Such a valuable answer.—*Tennyson.* Surprise at *such unwelcome* news.—*Froude.*

2. We *may* use *each other* when speaking of more than

two objects; we are not restricted to *one another* in such cases.

The *three* modes of shaping a proposition, distinct as they are from from *each other,* follow *each other* in natural sequence.—*J. H. Newman.* Concourse of the various faculties of the mind with *each other.*—*Walter Pater.*

3. We *may* use *one another* when speaking of two objects; but we are not restricted to *one another* in such cases.

The two armies failed to find *one another.*—*J. R. Green.* How do the mind and the universe communicate with *one another?*—*Martineau.*

4. We *may* use *a great deal, a great many,* or *a good deal, a good many.* Usage is equally divided between the two forms.

Means *a great deal.*—*E. A. Freeman. A great many* authors live because, etc.—*Lowell. A good many* things have gone out with the fire on the hearth.—*C. D. Warner.* Detained before the eye *a good deal* longer.—*De Quincey.*

5. We *may* use *which* with a *clause* for its antecedent.

On these subjects they are devoid of the false pretensions of the upper class, *which* is an unspeakable comfort.—*P. G. Hamerton.* If Oldys meant the last Duke of Buckingham, *which* is possible.—*R. G. White.*

6. We *may* use *whether* when three or more objects are spoken of; it is not restricted to two.

Whether as a *citizen,* a *patriot,* or a practical *philosopher.*—*Everett. Whether grim, grotesque, whimsical,* or playfully *affectionate.*—*Minto. Whether art* or *science,* or practical *craft.*—*Dean Church.*

7. We *may* use the *conjunctions either* and *neither* when speaking of three or more objects; we need not restrict them to two.

Neither Lear nor *Othello* nor *Macbeth* nor *Hamlet* is so typically perfect a tragedy as the *Agamemnon.—Fr. Harrison.* By *either Marlowe, Greene, Peele,* or *Shakespeare.—R. G. White.*

8. We *may* use the *adjective pronoun either* or *neither* when speaking of three or more objects; we are not restricted to *any* or *none* in such cases.

There is little or no reference, in *either* of the *three parts,* to the dialogue.—*Verplanck.* And so *neither* [of *three* families] can have precedence.—*Higginson.* The decision may come in *either* of *many modes.—Prof. Wm. James.*

9. We *may* use *both* or *all* with *of* and its noun after it. They need not be adjectives belonging to nouns or pronouns, though this is their more common use.

For *all of them* the Greek had only elegiacs.—*A. Lang.* There is enough of him for *both of us.—Everett.*

10. We *may* use *either* in the sense of *each.*

He saw the land swiftly receding on *either side.—Irving.* A long beach terminated by craggy rocks at *either end.—Hawthorne.*

11. We may use the forms *any* or *every* or *no* or *some one else's,* or *any* or *every* or *no* or *somebody else's.* There is very little authority for putting the *'s* upon *one* or *body.*

My happiness is no more desirable than *anybody else's.—Martineau.* Fight in *some one else's* quarrel.—*Wm. Black.* Our faith is apt to be a faith in *some one else's* faith.—*Wm. James.*

12. We *may* use *none* in the *singular* and in the *plural.*

But *none* of those who laugh at him *possess* a tithe of his sensibility.—*Macaulay.* *None has* always so acute a sense.—*Lowell.*

13. We *may* use *some,* with numerals, in the sense of *about.*

Some six years ago or more.—*Carlyle.* *Some thirty* horsemen dashed through the gate.—*Bulwer.*

14. We *may* use the form seen in *is being built, was being built,* to denote continuing action in the passive. We are not restricted to the form seen in *is building, was building.*

The point on which the battle *was being fought.*—*Froude.* Which *is being done* by means of it.—*J. Morley.* While it *was being prepared,* . . . he stayed at Bath.—*J. A. Symonds.*

15. We *may* use *the* with a participle and its *object.* We are not compelled to place the object after a preposition.

Modification is properly *the bringing* a *thing* into a certain mode.—*Hamilton.* *The making himself* drunk . . . is a crime against others.—*Mill.* Poltroonery is *the acknowledging* an *inferiority* to be incurable.—*Emerson.*

16. We *may* use *between* when speaking of three or more objects; we are not restricted to *among* in such cases. This use of *between* is favored by the great dictionaries, and can be traced all the way back into Anglo-Saxon.

The intercommunications *between* the *eye,* the *ear,* and the *tail* were of the oddest and the strangest.—*Dr. John Brown.* The family likeness *between* the *nine* is so strong.—*Marsh.* And they *three* were the dragon, the lion, and the wolf, which

should divide the realm *between them.*—*Holinshed.* The genetic relationship claimed to exist *between* the *five* great *branches* of the Scythian family.—*W. D. Whitney.*

17. We *may* follow the indefinite adjective pronoun *one* by a personal pronoun or a noun used in place of *one;* we need not repeat the *one.*

To have seen a numerous household assembled round the fire, *one* would have imagined that *he* was transported back to those happy days.—*Irving.* To walk staunchly by the best light *one* has . . . —this is the discipline by which alone *man* is enabled to rescue his life from thraldom.—*M. Arnold.*

18. We *may* use *had rather, had better,* before the infinitive; we need not say *would rather, would better,* instead. This is common usage from before Shakespeare and all the way down.

He *had better go* to an old curiosity shop on High Street.—*Hawthorne.* I *had rather believe* all the fables in the Legend and the Talmud and the Alcoran.—*Bacon.* We *had better seek* for a system which will develop honest men.—*Ruskin.*

19. We *may* use *get* in other senses than to "express attainment by exertion." It may be used with *have* to indicate (1) possession, and (2) necessity; without *have,* (3) as a causal, (4) in the sense of *become,* to indicate (5) real movement, and (6) figurative movement.

What large eyes you *have got,* what large teeth you *have got.*—*Thackeray.* We *have got* to learn that statesmanship is the most complicated of all arts.—*Lowell.* They are the most easy to *get obeyed.*—*Bagehot.* Emerson *got wet* and chilled.—*Holmes.* Adam *got down* from his horse.—*George Eliot.* How the Jews *got on* under the Mosaic law.—*Stedman.*

20. We *may* use *at length* instead of *at last.*

At length we can no longer touch the metal with impunity.

—*Tyndall.* The leader *at length* arose.—*Macaulay.* *At length* Richard trembles on the brink of annihilation.—*Dowden.* The mental force which originates exact thinking will *at length* command exact expression.—*Prof. Phelps.* Till *at length* we reached the Blue Hills.—*Everett.*

21. We *may* use *at best;* we need not say *at the best.*

Or *at best* but the devil's elixir.—*Longfellow.* Saw himself *at best* but the chief of some wandering horde.—*Prescott.* They are *at best* . . . but the insufficient representatives of the spirit of the time.—*Buckle.*

22. We *may* use the phrase *at all.*

I must have slept on it or not slept *at all.*—*Daniel Webster.* No eye *at all* is better than an evil eye.—*Dickens.* If certified *at all.*—*Hadley.* If it has any meaning *at all.*—*Huxley.* In point of naked syntactical accuracy the English of America is not *at all* inferior to that of England.—*Marsh.*

23. We *may* use *consider* with the meaning of *deem, think, regard;* we need not restrict it to the sense of *ponder, deliberate.*

She *considered* him a renegade.—*Motley.* He *considered* it his duty to criticize Radicals.—*Minto.*

24. We *may* use *just* to denote time and in the sense of *recently;* we need not restrict it to mean *exactly, precisely,* only.

He had *just been* so indignantly and rhetorically *denying.*—*Motley.* Which had *just been cleansed* by a snow-storm.—*Tyndall.*

25. We *may* use *quite* with the meaning *very, rather;* we need not use it only in the sense of *completely.*

Which is *quite closely* allied to one of the more common forms of insanity.—*Hamerton.* *Quite early* in English literature.—*Marsh.* He was *quite a lion.*—*John Fiske.* *Quite ordinary* humanity.—*Walter Pater.*

These are a few of the words and phrases respecting which usage and certain critics are at variance—usage allowing what they forbid. We say *allowing*, for the expressions which we here claim *may* be used are found in great abundance in the authors we have read. Those expressions for which no alternatives are given by us are those *commonly* employed; of the alternative expressions we may say that the one condemned is more often the one especially favored by usage.

PART III.

PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALS.

DIRECTIONS FOR USING CAPITALS.

1. Begin with a capital the first word of every sentence.

2. Begin with a capital the first word of every line of poetry.

3. Begin with a capital all proper nouns, and words directly derived from proper nouns; as,—

James G. Blaine; Baltimore; a Danish explorer; a Canadian merchant; Cuban women.

4. Begin with a capital all nouns "so strongly personified as to produce in the mind a distinct image of a person;" as,—

The Sun pillows his chin upon an orient wave.

The Breeze comes whispering to our ear.

'Tis true; Flattery spits her poison at the mightiest peers.

5. Begin with a capital every name and title of the Deity; as,—

Thy mercies, how tender, our Maker, Defender, Redeemer, and Friend.

The Most High; the Creator and Redeemer; Emmanuel.

6. Begin with a capital titles of honor, and official titles, especially when they precede a name, or are applied to a particular person; as,—

I saw Mayor Phelan. Did you see Governor Bliss and Professor Scott on the platform?

7. Begin with capitals the names of the days of the week and the names of the months of the year.

8. Begin with a capital the names of the Bible and of any of its books; as,—

The Holy Scriptures; the Epistle to the Galatians.

9. The nouns *north, east, south, west,* when applied to parts of a country, should begin with a capital; as,—

The products of the South; the mild climate of the far West.

10. Begin with a capital the names of religious sects, of political parties, and of organized bodies generally; as,—

He is a member of the Methodist Episcopal Church. In the recent elections the Republicans were generally successful.

11. Begin with a capital important words in the title of a book, or in the title of any other composition; as,—

"A Guide to the Study of our Common Birds," is a recent book.

12. Begin with a capital the names of important historical events and epochs; as,—

The Middle Ages; the Crusades; the Reformation.

13. Begin with a capital words denoting family relations, such as father, mother, uncle, etc., when they are used with the proper name of the persons, or without a possessive pronoun; as,—

This watch was a present from Aunt Alice. I have

had a letter from Father; or, *I have had a letter from my father.*

*14. Begin with capitals the words *mountain, river, street,* etc., when they are used in connection with their proper names; as,—

The Columbia River. He lives on Chestnut Street.

15. The pronoun *I* and the interjection *O* should always be capitals.

16. Begin with a capital every direct quotation or that which resembles a quotation; as,—

Lord Bacon said, "Writing maketh an exact man."

Let me repeat it, Devote yourself to the good of humanity.

17. Begin with a capital the first word of a Resolution, an Enactment, or a Full Example; as,—

Resolved, That we humbly petition the Board of Supervisors, etc.

Be it enacted by the Legislature of the State of Ohio, That on and after January 1, 1902, etc.

Remarks.—Personal pronouns that refer to the Deity are now usually capitalized.

Some words derived originally from proper nouns, have, by long usage, lost all reference to their origin, and hence are written with small initial letters; as, *simony, currant, artesian, laconic, milliner, solecism,* etc.

All who have had considerable experience in writing know that there are many constructions where the use or non-use of capitals is solely a matter of taste.

The tendency to use italics sparingly is becoming more and more marked. Inexperienced writers are prone to

*The publishers of most newspapers and of other periodicals ignore this rule.

capitalize and italicize too much. Skill in the use of capitals and italics can be acquired by extended observation and practise only.

PUNCTUATION.

The importance of punctuation can hardly be overstated. It is an indispensable help in making clear what one writes. It is the art of dividing written discourse into sentences and shorter sections in such a manner as to make obvious to the eye their grammatical relations and dependence. Though no two writers punctuate just alike, still there are rules on punctuation that are comparatively fixed, and observed by all reputable authors. Rules and directions can only facilitate the process of mastering the art. One is not a master of the art until he punctuates correctly from sheer habit—automatically. A master punctuates without thinking of the rules, for he is himself the rules—and vastly more—incarnate. Here, as elsewhere, patient observation and persistent practise are the ladder by which we rise to the plane of mastery.

THE PERIOD.

1. The Period should be placed at the end of every declarative and every imperative sentence; as,—

"In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth."

"Use your wit as a buckler, not as a sword."

2. Every abbreviated word should be followed by a Period; as,—

Jas. A. Garfield; Prof. R. G. Moulton, A. M., Ph. D.; Me., Mo., Pa., La., etc.

Remark.—When shortened forms of proper names and other nouns become current, they no longer require a period after them. Some of them are, Tom, Bill, Ben, Will, Sue, bus (omnibus), cab (cabriolet), Jap (Japanese), etc.

3. A Period is usually placed after each Roman numeral; as,—

Edward VII.; Chapters X., XI., and XII.

Remark.—When the Arabic figures 1, 2, 3, etc., are used to number a series of divisions or parts, each figure is followed by a period.

INTERROGATION POINT.

1. The Interrogation Point must be placed after every direct question; as,—

Who art thou? What can I do for you?

The question mark should not follow an indirect question; as,—

He asked me what I thought of the lecture.

2. When a sentence consists of two or more parts, each of which is a distinct question, the interrogation point should follow each part; as,—

What is the meaning of all this excitement? of all this confusion? of all this tumult?

If, however, a question is not complete until the close of the sentence, an interrogation point should be inserted only at the end of the sentence; as,—

Who was the older, Bismarck or Gladstone?

3. To express doubt as to the accuracy of a statement, an interrogation point inclosed in curves, is placed after it; as,—

1328 (?) was the year in which Chaucer was born.

Sometimes the enclosed question-mark tinges the doubt with irony; as,—

The honorable(?) gentleman is now enjoying the comforts of a penitentiary.

EXCLAMATION POINT.

A word, a phrase, or a sentence that expresses strong emotion is followed by an Exclamation Point; as,—

"How amiable are Thy tabernacles, O Lord of hosts!"
Ps. 84: 1.

"Rouse, ye Romans! rouse, ye slaves!"

"Alas!" said he with a sigh.

Oh! how you startled me!

The interjection is not always immediately followed by the exclamation point. Example:—

Oh, what a cruel fate is mine!

Prof. J. M. Hart says: "The use of the (!) is much less subject to rule than the use of the (?)." I am safe in saying that where one writer would place the exclamation point immediately after the interjection, another might use the point only at the end of the sentence, and insert a comma after the interjection. Professor Hart continues: "The best advice that one can give to the young is to be *very sparing in the use of the sign of exclamation.* Use the sign only when you are fully conscious that your feeling is intense, or that you are directly addressing some person or some personified object. A composition dotted over with (!!) is evidence of mental hysteria; to correct such writing is, for the sober-minded teacher, a personal grievance."

COMMA.

The least degree of separation in the division of a sentence is marked by a comma.

There is a growing disposition to disuse the comma in many cases where it was formerly employed.

Books printed to-day have fewer commas to the page than have those printed fifty years ago. Many of the rules on the use of the comma are not a little flexible. But formal directions are at least helpful.

1. Nouns that are independent by address, with their modifying words, are set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma or by commas; as,—

Come, *Anthony*, and young *Octavius*, come! Good-morning, *sir;* I am glad to see you. I dare not, *my dear friend*, comply with your request. *My son*, give me thine heart. Ring out, *wild bells*, to the wild sky. Hail, *O king! O velvet bee*, you're a dusty fellow. *Ye Crags and Peaks*, I'm with you once again.

If strong emotion is expressed by the noun or phrase of address, the exclamation point may be used instead of the comma.

2. Words and phrases used parenthetically must be set off by commas; as,—

In short, Master Edward bade fair to be a literary wonder. The stranger, *however*, quickened his horse to an equal pace. *Well*, do as you think best. *Again*, let us consider the consequences of this conduct. *In truth*, much may be said in favor of his proposal. The locomotive bellows, *as it were*, from the fury of passion. He went home, *accordingly*, and arranged his affairs in the manner described. The affair passed off to your satis-

faction, *no doubt.* The man was, *to be sure,* rather conceited. It is mind, *after all,* which does the work of the world. Come, *then,* let us reason together. Thou knowest, *come what may,* that the light of truth can never be put out. But, *on the other hand,* do not presume too much. No nation, *in short,* is free from danger. *On the other hand,* there is great danger in delay. *Besides,* it may promote the healthfulness of the town.

The phrases commonly employed in a parenthetical sense, are the following:—

As it were,	in short,	to be sure,
as it happens,	in truth,	in the meantime,
after all,	in a word,	on the contrary,
beyond question,	in fact,	on the other hand,
in reality,	in fine,	in the first place,
without doubt,	for the most part,	to be brief,
of course,	generally speaking,	in general.
no doubt,	now and then,	

The words so employed are:—

Therefore,	moreover,	then,
indeed,	accordingly,	however,
consequently,	finally,	too,
namely,	doubtless,	thus,
besides,	lastly,	again,
first,	secondly,	thirdly, etc.

Most of these words are susceptible of two constructions. Where they distinctly modify a particular word, they are not parenthetical, and must not be cut off by commas. Some writers do not isolate all of these words, even when they are parenthetical. The comma is often

omitted in the case of *too, also, therefore,* and *perhaps;* especially when they are so introduced as not to interfere with the harmonious flow of the sentence, and when the sentence is short.

3. Closely akin to parenthetical expressions, are what are usually called *intermediate* expressions. They are clauses or phrases that come between the essential parts of a sentence, as between subject and predicate, between the verb and its object, or between the parts of a quotation. These expressions should be isolated by commas. Examples:—

Truth, *like gold,* shines brighter by collision. Charity, *on whatever side we contemplate it,* is one of the rarest of Christian graces. One hour a day, *steadily given to a particular study,* will bring in time astonishing results. Christianity is, *in a most important sense,* the religion of hope. Prudence, *as well as courage,* is necessary to success in life's conflict. Phrases and clauses, *when not restrictive,* are set off by commas. Nature, *through all her works,* delights in variety. The brightest pupils may, *from want of application,* fail to attain the highest success. Study, *regarded as a means of culture merely,* is valuable. "There is no flock, *however watched and tended,* but one dead lamb is there."—*Longfellow.* I have endeavored, *in my previous lectures,* to show the falsity of some current maxims. "Let me make the ballads of a nation," *said Fletcher of Saltoun,* "and I care not who makes its laws."

An intermediate phrase may be *restrictive, i. e.,* inseparable in thought from what precedes; in that case it is not set off; as, The man *with a white beard* is my uncle. The tree *by the bridge* was blown down last night.

4. Phrases and clauses which, by transposition, are placed at the beginning of sentences, are usually followed by commas; as,—

Of all the senses, sight is perhaps the most useful. *Wearied by his long stay in London,* Irving started for a tour on the continent. *To make this point clear,* let me relate an anecdote. *Of all English essayists,* Lamb is the most admired. *If his illustrations are homely,* his arguments are strong. *Above,* the highway on a mossy bridge strode o'er it. *To govern for a moment,* he betrays a sacred trust. *To the wise and good,* old age presents a scene of tranquil enjoyment. *In order to succeed in study,* one must be able to concentrate his attention. *When Jesus returned to Galilee,* the people went out to greet Him. *To put it in round numbers,* there are 76,000,000 people in the United States. *To be frank with you,* I have no confidence in your scheme. *To tell the truth,* I can not understand him. *To speak plainly,* I did not enjoy the lecture. *To supply the deficiency,* he resorted to trickery. *Awkward in person,* he was ill adapted to gain respect.

5. A noun or pronoun modified by a participle or a participial phrase, but filling no other grammatical office in the sentence, is said to be in the *nominative case absolute.* Such nouns or pronouns are, with their accompanying words, set off by a comma or commas; as, *Our soldiers having reached the bridge,* the enemy fired upon them. Then came Jesus, *the doors being shut,* and stood in their midst. *Shame lost,* all virtue is lost. *His father being dead,* the prince assumed the crown. *The morning studies being over,* the boys started to gather wild flowers. *Night coming on,* we pitched our tent. *The*

sea being smooth, we went for a sail. Uncle James lay down, *his heart being heavy with sorrow. I being in the way,* the Lord led me to the house of my master's brother.

6. Adjective clauses that are *not restrictive,* or that do *not point out,* must be set off by commas; as,—

My father, *who heard the noise,* stole quietly to the window. Books, *which are the repositories of knowledge,* should be found in every household. Man, *who is formed in the image of his Maker,* is the paragon of animals. The eye, *which sees all things,* is unseen to itself. I thrice presented him a kingly crown, *which he did thrice refuse.* Ichabod, *who had no relish for this strange midnight companion,* now quickened his steed.

Here are a few examples of *restrictive* relative clauses:—

Men *who are industrious* are generally prosperous. The man *who had first spoken* made a second speech. A teacher must love a pupil *who is docile.* The spirit *which actuated him* was avarice. The powers *which now move the world* are steam and electricity. The things *which are seen* are temporal. The hand *that made us* is divine. He *that loveth Me* shall be loved of My Father.

Explanation.—A relative clause is restrictive when it limits the meaning of its antecedent to some particular sense. Thus: "The things which are seen are temporal." Here it is not "the things" merely, but "the things which are seen," that is the subject of "are temporal." Not *all* things are temporal; but only those which *are seen.* A separation of the relative clause from "things" would destroy the sense. The clause is therefore restrictive; it limits the meaning to that particular kind of things.

A non-restrictive clause is really equivalent to an additional thought. In the sentence, "Ichabod, *who had no relish for this strange midnight companion,* now quickened his steed," the clause is non-restrictive, the sentence being equivalent to "Ichabod now quickened his steed," and the additional statement, "Ichabod had no relish for this strange midnight companion." The relative clause does not limit the sense of the predicate to a particular Ichabod, in distinction to other Ichabods. As a rule, a relative clause is not restrictive when the relative pronoun means *and he, and it,* etc., *but he, but it,* etc.; as, "Ichabod, *who* (=and he) had no relish for this strange midnight companion, quickened his steed."

There are some apparent exceptions to rule 6, as follows:—

If several words come between the relative pronoun and its antecedent, a comma should precede the relative clause, even when used restrictively; as, "He does his work best, who thoroughly enjoys it."

When the relative pronoun refers to several nouns or pronouns as antecedents, the relative clause, though restrictive, is preceded by a comma; as, "He had hopes, fears, and longings, which his friends could not share."

The relative clause, whether restrictive or not, is preceded by a comma, if the relative pronoun is immediately followed by a word or a phrase enclosed in commas; as, "Those friends, who, *in the native vigor of his powers,* perceived the dawn of Robertson's future eminence, were at length rewarded."

The principle stated in rule 6, applies with equal force to restrictive and to non-restrictive participial phrases.

Here are several sentences containing non-restrictive participial phrases. Note the punctuation.

The strong man, *trusting in himself*, forgets caution. On the side of the hill, lay a large park, *reaching down to the river*. They, *fearing an attack*, slept on their arms. Alexander, *springing to the back of Bucephalus*, soon tamed him. Alexander, *having conquered the world*, wept for more worlds to conquer.

The following sentences contain restrictive participial phrases:—

A purse *filled with gold* was presented to the brave fireman. The images *carved on the ceiling* were overlaid with gold. The man *talking to Father* is a peddler. The books *lying on the table* belong to the teacher. The lecture *given by Mr. Parker* was highly praised.

7. Words and phrases in pairs should have a comma inserted after each pair; as,

Interest and ambition, honor and shame, friendship and enmity, gratitude and revenge, are the prime movers in public transactions. Rich and poor, weak and strong, young and old, must respond to Death's summons. Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to this vote. Old and young, rich and poor, wise and foolish, were involved.

8. Words in apposition, together with their modifiers, should be set off by commas; also a title or a degree following the name of a person is set off from the name by a comma; as,

John Fiske, the *philosopher and historian*, was a prolific writer. Diogenes, *the Greek philosopher*, was a cynic. Now the bright morning star, *day's harbinger*, comes dancing from the east. Paul, *the apostle of the*

Gentiles, was born at Tarsus. And he, *their prince,* shall rank among my peers. "Earth's noblest thing, *a woman perfected."—Lowell.* Albert N. Raub, A. M., Ph. D., is the author of many school text-books.

In such constructions as the following, the commas are not used: The poet *Lowell* was an eminent linguist. Paul *the apostle* was an aggressive missionary. Uncle *James* lives in the city. The Empress *Victoria* was exceedingly popular.

9. Words or phrases that are emphatically distinguished must be separated by commas; as,—

We live in *deeds;* not *years;* in *thoughts,* not *breaths;* in *feelings,* not in *figures* on a dial. Though *deep,* yet *clear;* though *gentle,* yet not *dull.* Though *black,* yet *comely;* and though *rash, benign. Liberal,* not *lavish,* is kind Nature's hand. Truth is not a stagnant *pool,* but a *fountain.* It was not the *president,* but the *secretary,* who made the announcements. *Vainly,* but *well,* the chieftain fought. The tongue was given us to speak the *truth,* not *falsehood.* There are few *voices,* but many *echoes,* in the world. Death *thinned their ranks,* but *could not shake their souls.* Not *failure,* but *low aim,* is crime. Not how *much,* but how *well.* The *battle,* but not *honor,* is lost. Though *He slay me,* yet will *I trust Him.* Live nobly; and the nobleness that lies in others, *sleeping,* but *never dead,* will rise in majesty to meet thine own. It is never our *tenderness* we repent of, but our *severity.*

10. In a series of words or phrases, having the same grammatical value, a comma should ordinarily be placed after each member of the series. If a conjunction is inserted after each member, commas may or may not be

used. If it is desired to make each member of the series stand out in bold relief, commas should be used, even though conjunctions are inserted. If a conjunction is inserted between only the last two terms of the series, a comma should follow each term except the last. If no conjunction is inserted between the last two members, a comma should be placed after the last member, unless what follows is a single word or a short expression very closely connected with the series.

If there are but two terms, and they are connected by a conjunction, no comma is needed. Examples:—

Industry, honesty, frugality, and *temperance* are among the cardinal virtues. *Infinite space, endless numbers,* and *eternal duration* fill the mind with great ideas. *Days, months, years,* have passed away. He is a *wise, prudent,* and *influential* citizen. We are *fearfully, wonderfully* made. The *katydids,* the *grasshoppers,* the *crickets,* make themselves heard. The *Jutes,* the *Saxons,* the *Angles* are the progenitors of the English race. *Time* and *tide* wait for no man. *Plain, honest* truth needs no artificial covering. They are a *rich* and *prosperous* people. He was *brave, pious, patriotic,* in all his aspirations. The description was *beautifully, clearly,* and *forcefully* written. The *sun,* the *moon,* the *planets,* the *stars* revolve. The *earth,* the *air,* the *water,* teem with busy life. He is *adroit, intense, narrow,* and *hard. Genesis, Exodus, Leviticus, Numbers, Deuteronomy,* constitute what is called the Pentateuch. Life is a *constant, responsible, unavoidable* duty. No other can know the *joys, sorrows, fears,* and *struggles,* which fill another's heart. (A comma is inserted after *struggles* to avoid ambiguity.) The man professed neither to *eat,* nor *drink,* nor *sleep.*

All have some conceptions of *truth*, *kindness*, *honesty*, *self-denial*, and *disinterestedness*. Happy is the child who *obeys*, *loves*, and *honors* his parents. We should seek after knowledge *steadily*, *patiently*, and *perseveringly*. My *father* and *mother* are in the country. *Burns*, *Carleton*, and *Riley* are poets of the people.

Remark.—Two or more adjectives sometimes precede the same noun, but are not of the same grammatical construction. Such adjectives require neither conjunctions nor commas. Thus: "A *beautiful white* horse." Here *beautiful* does not qualify *horse* merely, but *white horse*, hence no comma. In "a fragrant little flower," *fragrant* modifies *little flower*, and must not therefore be separated from it. Other examples are "small speckled hen," "a fine large trout," "an affable young man," etc.

11. The clauses of a compound sentence, if short, and simple in construction, are separated from one another by commas; as,—

Speak as you mean, do as you profess, perform what you promise. Cæsar was dead, the senators were dispersed, all Rome was in confusion. A man of polite imagination can converse with a picture, and find an agreeable companion in a statue. Crafty men contemn studies, simple men admire them, but wise men use them. Wind puffs up empty bladders, opinion puffs up fools. Captain Hull then took a key from his pocket, I unlocked the chest, and together we lifted its ponderous lid.

12. When the clauses of a compound sentence require the same verb, which is expressed in the first clause, but omitted in the others, the omission is usually marked by a comma; as,—

He follows his destiny; I, mine. Carthage has crossed

the Alps; Rome, the seas. The former of these tendencies was represented by the Jews; the latter, by the Greeks. From law arises security; from security, curiosity; from curiosity, knowledge. A wise man seeks to shine in himself; a fool, in others. To err is human; to forgive, divine.

The omitted verb is not marked if there are but two clauses, and a conjunction is inserted between them. Neither is the omission marked when the clauses are followed by a modifier that qualifies them all alike. "In a very light and vivacious composition the ellipsis of the verb is not usually marked." Examples:—

Charles makes the more rapid progress in language, but Albert in science. Plato was the more speculative, but Bacon the more practical, in philosophy. The animals fled to the forest, and we to the shelter of the nearest hut.

13. A noun clause used as the subject of a verb, is usually—though not always—followed by a comma.

When a noun clause is in apposition with a preceding noun, the noun and the clause are separated by a comma. A noun clause used as the object of a verb, is not preceded by a comma unless the clause is of great length. Examples:—

Whatever is worth doing at all, is worth doing well. *That the earth is round* is proved by the shape of its shadow. Macdonald told his audience, *that, for making a man accurate, there is nothing like having to teach what he possesses,* Who has not heard the well-known aphorism, *that seeing is believing? That the work of forming and perfecting the character is difficult,* is generally admitted. *That Mary Queen of Scots, hardly inferior to Elizabeth in intellectual power, stood high above her in*

fire and grace and brilliancy of temper, admits of no doubt.

It should be remembered, however, that where there is one noun clause set off by some mark of punctuation, there are nine which are not set off.

Let the student find in some text-book on grammar, examples of noun clauses, and note the punctuation.

14. Unless the connection is very close, adverbial clauses should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma, especially if they are inverted; as,—

If the young are taught how to think, they will soon learn what to think. *If you would appear noble,* be noble. *Unless public opinion supports the law,* it is of no avail. *If you would be pungent,* be brief. We will go *if you wish.* (Connection close.) You may go *when you please.* (Close.) You will reap *as you sow.* (Close.) He went through the principal provinces of the empire, *that he might see for himself the condition of the people.* The tree will not bear fruit in autumn, *unless it blossoms in the spring. If wishes were horses,* beggars might ride. Love not sleep, *lest thou come to poverty.* The season must have been a rainy one, *for vegetation is rank. Were one to open his ear and his purse to all the schemes proposed to him,* he would soon find himself in the poorhouse. *Where there is no tale-bearer,* strife ceaseth. *When the cat's away,* mice play. *When a miser has lost his hoard,* he has nothing left to comfort him.

SEMICOLON; COLON.

1. If the clauses of a compound sentence contain commas within themselves, they are commonly separated from each other by a semicolon; if they contain semi-

colons, they are separated from each other by colons; as,—

Having detained you so long already, I shall not trespass longer upon your patience; but, before concluding, I wish you to observe this truth. Then shook the hills, with thunder riven; then rushed the steeds to battle driven. As we perceive the shadow to have moved, but did not perceive it moving; so our advances in learning, consisting of minute steps, are perceivable only by the distance. Prosperity is naturally, though not necessarily, attached to virtue and merit; adversity, to folly and vice. The path of truth is a plain and safe path; that of falsehood, a perplexing maze. Everything that happens is both a cause and an effect; being the effect of what goes before, and the cause of what follows. Our first work is to lay the foundation; our second, to build the superstructure. Human happiness has no perfect security but freedom; freedom, none but virtue; and virtue, none but knowledge. Man is unjust, but God is just; and finally justice triumphs. To be perfectly just is an attribute of God; to be so to the utmost of our abilities, is the glory of man. Touch the goblet no more; it will make thy heart sore, to its very core. It is the mind that makes the body rich; and as the sun breaks through the darkest clouds, so honor peereth in the meanest habit. Give us the man of integrity, on whom we know we can thoroughly depend; who will stand firm when others fail; the friend, faithful and true; the adviser, honest and fearless; the adversary, just and chivalrous: such a one is a fragment of the Rock of Ages. Virtue will catch, as well as vice, by contact; and the public stock of honest, manly principle will daily accumulate. Laziness grows on peo-

ple; it begins in cobwebs, and ends in iron chains. Three things too much, and three too little are pernicious to man: to speak much, and know little; to spend much, and have little; to presume much, and be worth little. Every one must, of course, think his own opinions right; for, if he thought them wrong, they would no longer be his opinions: but there is a wide difference between regarding ourselves as infallible, and being firmly convinced of the truth of our creed. "Very good," replied the dial: "but recollect that, though you may think of a million strokes in an instant, you are required to execute but one; and that, however often you may hereafter have to swing, a moment will always be given you to swing in."

2. Unless the clauses of a compound sentence are very short and simple, they are separated by a semicolon, though the clauses have no commas within them; as,—

There is good for the good; there is virtue for the virtuous; there is victory for the valiant; there is spirituality for the spiritual. The blue sky now turned more softly gray; the great watch-stars shut up their holy eyes; the east began to kindle. Bolts and bars are not the best of our institutions; nor is shrewdness in trade a mark of wisdom. Ingratitude is the abridgment of all baseness; a fault never found unattended with other vices. He that forgets his friend is ungrateful to him; but he that forgets his Saviour is unmerciful to himself. Sow good services; sweet remembrances will grow from them. God intends no man to live in this world without working; but it seems to me no less evident that He intends every man to be happy in his work. Genius begins great works; labor alone finishes them. Straws swim at the surface; but pearls lie at the bottom. Lying lips are an

abomination unto the Lord; but they that deal truly are His delight. To acquire a few tongues is the task of a few years; to be eloquent in one is the labor of a lifetime. Law is often spoken of as uncertainty; but the uncertainty is not so much in the law as in the evidence.

3. A semicolon is used to separate clauses having a common dependence; as,—

Science declares that no particle of matter can be destroyed; that each atom has its place in the universe; and that, in seeking that place, each obeys certain fixed laws. Children, as they played on the beach; reapers, as they gathered the harvest; mowers, as they rested from using the scythe; mothers, as they busied themselves about the household,—were victims to an enemy who disappeared the moment a blow was struck. When my heart shall have ceased to throb; when my life shall have passed away; when my body shall have been consigned to the tomb,—then shall all these things be remembered in my favor. Still more surprised were they to learn that, in order to have bread, wheat had to be sown in the ground; that grass was necessary for the production of milk; and that wine did not flow out of casks on turning the key. If we think of glory in the field; of wisdom in the cabinet; of the purest patriotism; of the highest integrity, public and private; of morals without a stain; of religious feeling without intolerance and without extravagance,—the august character of Washington presents itself as the personation of all these. That benevolence which prompted Jesus to incessant exertion; which supported Him through unparalleled suffering; which was alike the soul of His discourses, His actions, and His miracles; which shone through His life and His death; whose

splendors were around His brow when He expired on the cross, and when He sat down on the right hand of the Majesty on high,—what is it but a glorious revelation of the glorious truth that God is love? Philosophers assert, that nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries. To give an early preference to honor above gain, when they stand in competition; to despise every advantage that can not be attained without dishonest acts; to brook no meanness; and to stoop to no dissimulations, are the indications of a great mind.

4. A clause which is added to a complete sentence by way of inference, explanation, enumeration, or contrast, is preceded by a semicolon if the clause is introduced by a conjunction; if the conjunction is omitted,* by a colon; as,—

Cicero in his treatise on morals enumerates four cardinal virtues; to wit, Fortitude, Temperance, Justice, and Prudence. America has produced six great historians; namely, Bancroft, Prescott, Motley, Parkman, Ridpath, and Fiske. I am poor and needy; yet the Lord thinketh upon me. Apply yourself to study: it will redound to your honor. Honesty is the best policy; but he who acts on that principle is not an honest man. Men must have recreation: literature and art furnish that which is most pure, innocent, and refining. In every work of genius we recognize our own rejected thoughts: they come back to us with a sort of alienated majesty. The wise man's

*Some writers use the semicolon even though a conjunction is not inserted.

eyes are in his head; but the fool walketh in darkness. Study to acquire a habit of thinking: no study is more important. Never flatter people: leave that to such as mean to betray them. He who seldom thinks of heaven is not likely to get there: the only way to hit the mark is to keep the eye fixed upon it. Error is a hardy plant: it flourishes in every soil. To be bold against an enemy is common to the brutes; but to be bold against himself is the prerogative of man. He that gathereth in summer is a wise son; but he that sleepeth in harvest is a son that causeth shame. The greatest truths are the simplest; and so are the greatest men.

5. Direct quotations, and formal enumerations of particulars, when introduced by such expressions as, *the following, in these words, as follows, these, this, thus,* etc., are preceded by a colon; as,—

Lord Bacon has summed up the whole matter in the following words: "A little philosophy inclineth men's minds to atheism; but depths in philosophy bringeth men's minds to religion." We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. His words were these: "If I am guilty, punish me." These are the terms: No cure, no pay. For of all sad words of tongue or pen, the saddest are these: "It might have been." This is the rule: A subject in the singular number requires a singular verb. He expressed the thought thus: "Idleness is the greatest prodigality in the world."

When the quotation begins a new paragraph, a colon

and dash usually, but not always, follows the introductory words; as,—

This is the stanza I mean:—

> "There is no glory in a star or blossom
> Till looked upon by a loving eye," etc.

In the discussion of the uses of the comma it was stated that a short quotation not formally introduced, is usually separated from the rest of the sentence by commas. When a quotation serves as the object of a verb, and immediately follows the verb, it is, unless very long, preceded by a comma. If the quotation is very short, it is frequently not set off at all. All books containing dialogue, afford examples without number. Examine a page or two of such a book.

DASH; MARKS OF PARENTHESIS.

Of the Dash, Dr. Raub says: "The Dash has its legitimate use, and is necessary in many kinds of composition, but it is frequently used by unskilled writers as a substitute for the comma, the semicolon, the colon, the marks of parenthesis, and even the period. It should not be used as a substitute for any of these. The use of the dash for any of the marks here mentioned is permissible only where none of them can be correctly used."

1. The dash marks the omission of *namely, that is, viz.*, or some such introductory term; as,—

Three parties have candidates in the field,—the Republican, the Democratic, and the Prohibition. The world can boast of only four great writers of epic poetry,—Homer, Virgil, Dante, and Milton.

In the foregoing sentences the semicolon, or even the colon, would be used instead of the dash, by some writers

of repute. Others would use the dash but omit the comma. Those who employ a semicolon or a colon are a very small minority.

2. Parenthetical expressions too independent in construction to admit of commas, are enclosed either by dashes or by marks of parenthesis. The dash is more frequently used now in this sense than formerly. A parenthetical expression enclosed by dashes is usually less independent of the context than one enclosed by the curves of parenthesis. Examples:—

In truth, the character of the great chief was depicted two thousand five hundred years before his birth, and depicted—such is the power of genius—in colors which will be fresh as many years after his death. The smile of a child—always ready when there is no distress, and so soon recurring when that distress has passed away—is like an opening of the sky, showing heaven beyond. Religion—who can doubt it?—is the noblest theme for the exercise of the intellect. There are times—they only can understand who know them—when passion is dumb, and purest love maintains her own dominion. To Anderson—a young man of fancy—everything in Italy was a delight. Those who hated him most heartily—and no [other] man was hated so heartily—admitted that he possessed great intellectual brilliance. Pride, in some disguise or other (often a secret to the proud man himself), is the most common spring of human action. Approach and read (for thou canst read) the lay engraved on the stone beneath yon aged thorn. My new bicycle (Is it not handsome?) is the latest make. The lecture (if such it may be called) was a distinct disappointment.

> Know then this truth (enough for man to know),
> Virtue alone is happiness below.

3. A dash sometimes precedes an emphatic summing up of particulars; as,—

The great men of Rome, her legends, her history, the height to which she rose, the depths to which she fell,—these make up one-half of many a student's ideal life. Moses, Joshua, Gideon, David, Daniel,—these are the names that impart luster to Jewish history. He was witty, affable, sympathetic, discreet,—everything but industrious. Money, lands, influence, friends,—all are gone.

4. A dash is used to mark an abrupt change in either the construction or the sentiment; as,—

Her soul was noble—in her own opinion. Was there ever a bolder captain of a more valiant band? Was there ever—but I scorn to boast. Then he turned to the future—and ordered his dinner. If you will give me your attention, I will show you—but stop; I do not know that you wish to hear me. Have you ever seen—but of course you never have. He had no malice in his mind—no freckles on his nose. You are—no, I'll not tell you what you are. Babylon, Nineveh, Athens, Rome—where are they? He chastens;—but He chastens to save.

"He suffered—but his pangs are o'er;
He enjoyed—but his delights are fled;
Had friends—his friends are now no more;
And foes—his foes are dead."

—*Montgomery.*

5. Pauses and repetitions which are intended for elocutionary effect are often indicated by dashes; as,—

If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, while a foreign troop were landed in my country, I would never lay down my arms—never, never, never! Newton was

a Christian;—Newton! whose mind burst forth from the fetters cast by nature on our finite conceptions; Newton!—whose science was truth, and the foundation of whose knowledge of it was philosophy. There is one quality which everywhere characterizes growth,—the quality of repose. One feels that he is in a hard world, but it is a real world,—not a hospital, a mad-house, or a place of fantastic dreams. For nature, in the prophetic vision of childhood, was as she will some day become in the vision of science,—a sublime analogy of the growth of man. Moses, with God on the mountain, came down with a shining face—shining so brightly with unconscious power that the people could not gaze upon him until he was veiled. This implies different degrees of spiritual power—power sufficient to reach some hearts but not all. This spiritual force uses the power of thought, which is immense in its character—the thoughts not only of good men, but of angels and of God—thoughts which were from eternity, and thoughts which shall triumph when earth's history shall have closed. Here lies the dust of Cicero—Cicero! who once thrilled the world with his eloquence. He has a weakness—a weakness of the head as well as of the heart. Men will wrangle for religion, write for it, fight for it, anything but—live for it. Shakespeare is above all other writers, at least above all modern writers, the poet of nature—the poet that holds up to his readers a faithful mirror of manners and life.

6. The dash is used to indicate the omission of letters or figures; as, "He was born in 18—, in the town of ———, Md."

7. A dash should be inserted between a title run in the

line and the subject matter; also between a citation and the authority for it. This rule is repeatedly exemplified throughout this book.

8. The parts of a dialogue or conversation, when run into a paragraph instead of beginning separate lines, are separated by dashes; as, "Shall you attend school this year?"—"I shall." "Do you enjoy school work?"—"I do."

9. In reports of speeches, marks of Parenthesis are used to enclose remarks of approval or disapproval by the audience, and to enclose the name of the person indicated by a pronoun, by gestures, or otherwise; as, "Mr. Chairman, I beg leave to ask the gentleman from Iowa (Mr. Allison) a question which he would prefer to answer elsewhere (hear, hear)."

10. Numerals when employed for the sake of a clear enumeration of the parts or divisions of a general subject, are sometimes enclosed by marks of parenthesis. An interrogation point or an exclamation point is sometimes similarly enclosed to indicate a query or a doubt.

The Brackets [ ] are used to enclose an interpolation, which is intended to correct an error, afford an explanation, supply an omission, or give a reference; as, "The jury is [are] not agreed." "Webster was more eloquent than any [other] orator of his day."

Dr. Hart says: "The brackets are used to enclose a sentence, or a part of a sentence, within the body of another sentence, and thus far are like the marks of parenthesis. But the matter included within brackets is entirely independent of the sentence, and so differs from what is merely parenthetical. Further, the matter within the brackets is usually inserted by one writer to correct

or add to what has been written by another, while the parenthesis is a part of the original composition, and is written by the same person that wrote the rest of the sentence."

QUOTATION MARKS.

When the words of another are introduced into one's discourse, they are called a *quotation*. Every direct quotation should be enclosed in quotation marks; as, Jesus said, "I am the way, the truth, and the life." "The object of education," says the philosopher Kant, "is to develop in each individual all the perfection of which he is susceptible."

A quotation coming within another quotation is enclosed by single quotation marks; as, The helpless man said with evident satisfaction, "I love to think of those precious words, 'I am poor and needy; yet the Lord thinketh upon me.'" "On one occasion," says Whittier, "I was told that a foreigner had applied to my mother for lodging. 'What if a son of mine were in a strange land?' she said to herself."

The titles of books, essays, etc., are sometimes enclosed in quotation marks. If such titles are printed in italics, they are usually not enclosed.

A quotation consisting of two or more paragraphs requires the inverted commas at the beginning of each paragraph, but the closing marks follow the last paragraph only.

The uses of other marks employed in printed discourse, can be readily learned by consulting any good dictionary.

In the light of the foregoing rules and principles, study the punctuation of the following sentences:—

1. "We hear much of love to God; Christ spoke much

of love to man. We make a great deal of peace with heaven; Christ spoke much of peace on earth."—*Drummond.*

2. "The greatest thing," says some one, "a man can do for his heavenly Father is to be kind to some of His other children."

3. Give me the charity which delights not in exposing the weakness of others, but "covereth all things."

4. Spiritual experience occupies itself, not too much, but too exclusively, with one factor—the soul.

5. He that would be happy, let him remember that it is more blessed—it is more happy—to give than to receive.

6. These two, Heredity and Environment, are the master influences of the organic life.

7. The world is not a playground; it is a schoolroom: and its great lesson that we are always to learn is the lesson of love in all its parts.

8. If we neglect a garden plant, then a natural principle of deterioration comes in, and changes it into a worse plant. . . . Or, if we neglect almost any of the domestic animals, they will rapidly revert to wild and worthless forms. Now, the same thing exactly would happen in the case of you and me. Why should man be an exception to any of the laws of nature?

9. There is only one thing greater than happiness in the world, and that is holiness; and that is not in our keeping; God reserves that to Himself; but what He has put in our power is the happiness of our fellow-creatures, and that is to be secured by our being kind.

10. There is no "perhaps" in nature; there is a cause for everything that we see, or feel, or hear.

11. Has love no future? Has right no triumph? Is the unfinished self to remain unfinished? Again, the alternatives are two, Christianity or Pessimism.

12. To seize continuously the opportunity of more and more perfect adjustment to better and higher conditions; to balance some inward evil with some purer influence acting from without; in a word, to make our environment at the same time that it is making us—these are the secrets of a well-ordered and successful life.

13. Drummond once wrote: "There is a disease called 'touchiness'—a disease which, in spite of its innocent name, is one of the gravest sources of restlessness in the world."

14. If you once ask the devil to dinner, it will be hard to get him out of the house again: better to have nothing to do with him.

15. If you want to sleep soundly, buy a bed of a man who is in debt; surely it must be a very soft one, or he never could have rested so easy on it.

16. Why, I know tradesmen who have failed five or six times, and yet they think they are on the way to heaven; the scoundrels, what would they do if they got there?

17. To carry two faces under one hat is, however, very common.

18. Spurgeon puts these words in the mouth of John Ploughman: "Shirt sleeves rolled up lead on to best broadcloth; and he who is not ashamed of the apron will soon be able to do without it. 'Diligence is the mother of good luck,' as Poor Richard says."

19. And now after so long a preface, hear my thought —a thought I gave the Endeavorers the next morning,

as we stood in our sunrise prayer-meeting by the side of the sea. *Keep warm the heart within you, if you want to keep the power outside you!*

20. From this trifling experience of mine, I have deduced one of my life maxims,—a formula which I have found very useful in this bustling telephone of a world. The maxim contains a bit of a lesson for men of conceit and of heady self-assertion; a lesson which they will probably leave just where they find it, but nevertheless here it is: "*Talk easy; listen hard!*"

21. The following words are from the pen of Dr. Wells:—

"It is considered a disgrace, in a printer's office, to have long galleys of type gathering dust, laid up in the frames or laid out on the 'stone.' After type has been used, if it is not to be used again,—and especially if it has been stereotyped,—it is appropriately called 'dead matter,' and should be distributed as soon as possible. Worker, if you would be shrewd, distribute your life-types as soon as the matter has become stereotyped! Your words may have been eloquent as Demosthenes; never mind; they are now dead matter. Don't use them again and again. Throw them in, and set up new words. Your methods have been good, but they are now stereotyped. Let's have a change. Keep up the circulation. Distribute the type. Give us new combinations. 'Time makes ancient good uncouth,' worker,—ancient formulas, ancient expressions, ancient tools, ancient ways of using ancient tools."

22. The dewdrop that glistens in the eye of the daisy; the green sap that fills the delicate veins of the lilies; the soft spring rain that fertilizes the earth, nourishing the

seed in the furrow, and the blossom on the tree; the snow that covers with its stainless shroud the dead things of nature,—all, all come from the sea.

23. And not only is it [the sea] the emblem of change: it is itself the cause, directly or indirectly, of nearly all the physical changes that take place in the world.

24. Falsehood is in a hurry; it may be at any moment detected and punished; truth is calm, serene; its judgment is on high; its king cometh out of the chambers of eternity.

25. Every one wishes to have truth on his side, but it is not every one that sincerely wishes to be on the side of truth.

26. All truth undone becomes unreal: "he that doeth His will shall know," says Jesus.

27. Tribulation will not hurt you, unless it does—what, alas! it too often does—unless it hardens you, and makes you sour and narrow and skeptical.

28. In the words of Mr. Simmons: "Johnson well says, 'He who waits to do a great deal of good at once will never do anything.'"

29. Wit is brushwood; judgment, timber; the one gives the greater flame; the other, the greater heat.

30. Perfect wisdom hath four parts; viz., wisdom, the principle of doing things aright; justice, the principle of doing things equally in public and private; fortitude, the principle of not flying danger, but meeting it; and temperance, the principle of subduing desires and living moderately.

31. You have too much respect upon the world: they lose it that do buy it with much care.—*Shakespeare.*

32. We enjoy ourselves only in our work—in our doing; and our best doing is our best enjoyment.

33. St. Edmund of Canterbury was right when he said to some one, "Work as though you would live forever; live as though you would die to-day."

34. Cast forth thy act, thy word, into the ever-living, ever-working universe; it is a seed-grain that can not die; unnoticed to-day, it will be found flourishing as a banyan grove; perhaps, alas, as a hemlock forest, after a thousand years.

35. Education is a companion which no misfortune can depress, no crime destroy, no enemy alienate, no despotism enslave. At home, a friend; abroad, an introduction; in solitude, a solace; and in society, an ornament. Without it, what is man?—a splendid slave, a reasoning savage.

36. A true education—what is it? It is awakening a love for truth; giving a just sense of duty; opening the eyes of the soul to the great purpose and end of life. It is not so much giving words, as thoughts; or mere maxims, as living principles. It is not teaching to be honest, because "Honesty is the best policy," but because it is right. It is teaching the individual to love the good, for the sake of the good; to be virtuous in action, because so in heart; to love and serve God supremely, not from fear, but from delight in His perfect character.

37. The real object of education is to give children resources that will endure as long as life endures,—habits that time will ameliorate, not destroy; occupations that will render sickness tolerable, solitude pleasant, age venerable, life more dignified and useful, and death less terrible.

38. There are three lofty virtues,—faith, hope, charity.

39. The silence of nature is more impressive, would we understand it, than any speech could be; it expresses what no speech can utter.

40. Satire should not be like a saw, but a sword: it should cut, and not mangle.

41. In describing the vast influence of a perfect orator over the feelings and passions of his audience, Sheridan forcibly says: "Notwithstanding the diversity of minds in such a multitude, by the lightning of eloquence they are melted into one mass; the whole assembly, actuated in one and the same way, become, as it were, but one man, and have but one voice. The universal cry is, 'Let us march against Philip; let us fight for our liberties; let us conquer or die.' "

42. I gave (and who would not have done so?) my last nickel to the helpless boy.

43. My St. Bernard dog (is he not a fine fellow?) cost me twenty-five dollars.

44. You demand universal suffrage,—I demand universal education to go with it.

45. Garrick showed Johnson his fine house, gardens, statues, pictures, etc., at Hampton Court.—"Ah! David, David," said the doctor, "these are the things that make death terrible."

46.

> Ill fare the land, to hastening ills a prey,
> Where wealth accumulates and men decay;
> Princes and lords may flourish or may fade;
> A breath can make them, as a breath has made;
> But a bold peasantry, their country's pride,
> When once destroyed, can never be supplied.

47. We can not always succeed; but, if we fail, we can always fail—in good spirits.

48. Write a short essay on Fame with the following motto:—

What is celebrity? The advantage of being known to people whom you don't know.

49.

A thing of beauty is a joy forever;
Its loveliness increases; it will never
Pass into nothingness.

—*Keats.*

50.

A brook came stealing from the ground;
You scarcely saw its silvery gleam
Among the herbs that hung around
The borders of that winding stream,—
The pretty stream, the placid stream,
The softly-gliding, bashful stream.

PART IV.

THE ART OF CORRESPONDENCE.

To be able to write a good letter is an enviable accomplishment. To be wanting in this accomplishment is to prove one's education to be defective. Being the most practical of the several kinds of composition, letter-writing should be—if there is any difference—the most thoroughly mastered. Not every one can reasonably aspire to write essays or books of any kind for the general reader, but everybody writes letters. What one needs to do so often, one ought to be able to do well. Too little attention is given to the cultivation of excellence in espistolary composition. Perhaps only one letter in a hundred would be adjudged an ideal letter in both form and matter. At least the mechanical requisites of a good letter should be mastered by every one who has occasion for writing letters.

There are two general classes of letters,—Informal or private, and Formal or business letters. A good business letter is clear, courteous, and brief. Its language is definite. It conveys its meaning in the fewest words consistent with ordinary politeness. It observes the best forms of address and signature. It refrains from brusque remarks and from curt abbreviations. It contains nothing personal or irrelevant.

Very different, however, are the tone and manner of a personal or social letter. Professor Meiklejohn says:—

"In private letter-writing let yourself go a little—be entirely natural. Remember that you are not writing in an examination-room. This of itself will probably cause you to write in a natural style. Nothing is so tiresome, nothing gives so little pleasure to receive, as a 'composition' letter. In private letters anything like a formal style is disagreeable; indeed, much more laxity of expression—even to colloquialism—is both admissible and pleasant. If you are writing to a friend, write to him as you would talk to him, and not as if the eye of the examiner were always upon you."

From Professor Lewis:—

"To give such a letter [informal] the tone which represents exactly the relation between the two people is a hard task. The nicest sense of tact is required in order not to be too stiff and not too familiar. Personal letters demand the art of colloquial composition. Those imperceptive persons who have but one style of composition,—that of a book, or that of a clerk,—make sorry work of personal letters. Suppose that you have always known one of these persons. You have played with him, read with him. . . . When you meet, he calls you by your first name. When he writes to ask you to visit him, he addresses you as *Dear Sir,* and signs himself *Respectfully!* His letters give you a chill. There is too little of the personal letter-writing of the better sort, the leisurely, careful, courteous, old-fashioned kind of written talk,—writing that, like Thomas Cholmondeley's, could be signed, 'Ever yours and not in haste.'"

The conventional letter consists, as to *form,* of seven parts,—the Heading, the Address, the Salutation, the Body, the Complimentary Close, the Signature, and the Superscription.

By the Heading is meant the name of the *place* at which the letter is written and the *date.* If a letter is

written from a city, the door number, the name of the street, the name of the city, and the name of the State should be clearly given. If the writer is staying at a hotel or at a school, or any other well-known institution, its name takes the place of that of the street and the number, as may also the number of your post-office box. If the letter is written from a village or other country place, the name of the county, as well as that of the post-office and that of the State, should be given.

Begin the Heading on the first line of the page, or, if the paper is unruled, about an inch and a half from the top edge of the paper. The Heading should be well toward the right-hand edge of the page. If it occupies more than one line, the second line should be a little farther to the right than the first, and the third a little farther than the second. The date and the name of the place are sometimes put below the signature, toward the left edge of the page. Each item is set off by a comma, and the whole is followed with a period. Example of Headings are here given:—

Sunbury, Pa., July 15, 1901.

Cloverdale, Sonoma Co., Cal.,
Aug. 1, 1901.

Normal School, Millersville, Pa.,
Sept. 10, 1901.

10 Park St., Boston, Mass.,
Aug. 21, 1901.

191 and 193 Lafayette Ave.,
Detroit, Mich.,
Oct. 5, 1901.

The Address consists of two parts: (1) The name and title of the person addressed; (2) the name of the place to which the letter is to be sent. The address begins about half an inch from the left edge of the paper, and may occupy one, two, or three lines just below the heading.

In any except business letters the address is sometimes put near the left margin on the line below the signature. In familiar letters the address is frequently omitted.

Titles need to be used with discrimination. Thus: Prefix *Mr.* to a man's name, when no other title has displaced. *Mr.; Messrs.* to the names of several gentlemen; *Master* to the name of a boy; *Miss* to the name of an unmarried lady; *Misses* to the names of several unmarried ladies; *Mrs.* to the name of a married lady or a widow; *Mesdames* (pronounce Ma-däm') to names of two or more married ladies or widows; *Dr.* (plural *Drs.*) to the name of a physician, or *M. D.* is placed after the name. *The Rev.* is usually prefixed to the name of a clergyman, or *The Rev. Mr.,* if his first name is not known to the writer; *The Rev. Dr.,* if he is a doctor of divinity, or *The Rev.* before his name and *D. D.* after it. A Dean in the Anglican Church or the Principal (if a clergyman) of a Scotch University, or the Moderator of the Scotch General Assembly, receives the title of *The Very Rev.;* Bishops of the English and Catholic Churches are styled *The Right* (Rt.) *Rev.,* and Archbishops, *The Most Rev.* The word *Venerable* is placed before the name of an Archdeacon; as,—

The Venerable A——— B———,
Archdeacon of ————————.

The Bishops of the Methodist Church prefer the simpler title of *Rev.*

Esq. is added to the name of a lawyer, of a justice of the peace, of a notary public, and sometimes to men of more than ordinary social standing. In England it is accorded to all untitled owners of landed estates, barristers at law, mayors, commissioned officers in the army and navy, and professional men. *Esq.* and *Mr.* should never be applied to the same name at the same time. *The Hon.* or *Hon.* (preferably the former) is prefixed to the name of a Cabinet officer, a member of Congress, a State Senator, a Law Judge, or a Mayor. Prefix *His Excellency* to the name of a Governor or of an Ambassador; as, "To His Excellency the Governor of Ohio," or simply, "To His Excellency the Governor." In conversation, the President is addressed as "Mr. President;" by foreigners, as "Your Excellency."

In writing, the form of salutation is, "Mr. President, Sir;" or, "To His Excellency, the President of the United States." The complimentary close may vary; thus, "I am, sir, your most obedient servant;" "I am most respectfully yours;" "I have the honor to be your Excellency's most obedient servant," etc. The superscription should be:—

To the President,
Executive Mansion,
Washington, D. C.

Or,

To the President of the United States,
Washington, D. C.

Or,

To His Excellency,
The President of the United States,
Executive Mansion,
Washington, D. C.

The order of priority of office in civil government is:—

The President, the Vice-President, the Chief Justice, the Speaker of the House, Ambassadors from foreign countries, and next the members of the Cabinet. The ladies of the Cabinet come next to the wife of the President.

The priority of rank in the Cabinet is: The Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of War, Attorney-General, Postmaster-General, Secretary of Navy, Secretary of Interior, Secretary of Agriculture.

The members of the Cabinet are addressed by their official titles, with that of *Hon.* prefixed; as,—

To the Honorable, the Secretary of State.

The adding of the surname would be superfluous, as there is but one Secretary at the same time. The same is true of the President. An invitation from a member of the Cabinet would begin,—

The Secretary of War and Mrs. Root request the honor of, etc.

The Vice-President is addressed as, "Mr. Vice-President, Sir;" the Chief Justice as, "Mr. Chief Justice, Sir."

An associate Justice of the Supreme Court is addressed simply as, "Mr. Justice," with the surname added; thus, "Mr. Justice Gray." The form of the superscription is,—

To The Hon. Joseph McKenna,
Justice of Supreme Court,
United States,
Washington, D. C.

The Head of the Army is addressed thus:—

To Major-General Nelson A. Miles,
Commanding Officer,
Washington, D. C.

Or,

To Major-General Nelson A. Miles,
Commanding the Army of the U. S.,
Washington, D. C.

The salutation commonly employed in addressing the President, a member of the Cabinet, an officer in the Army or Navy, is simply *Sir.* If the writer is on intimate terms with such officer, he may write, *Dear Sir,* or *Dear General.*

The Pope is addressed (except by those whose consciences protest) as,—

His Holiness the Pope.

Or,

To Our Most Holy Father,
Pope Leo XIII.

The salutation: "Most Holy Father," or "Your Holiness."

A Cardinal is addressed as,—

His Eminence Cardinal Gibbons.

Or,

To His Eminence the Most Reverend Cardinal Gibbons.

The salutation is: "Your Eminence," or "Most Eminent and Most Reverend Sir."

Scholastic degrees are nearly always abbreviated. Except in college calendars and catalogues, more than one such degree is not usually written. If Professor Blank is the proud possessor of M. S., A. M., Ph. D., LL. D., F. R. S., etc., it would hardly be in good taste to string them out on the back of an envelope. The highest alone should be given, which is, of course, the last received. That usually implies the others. Thus:—

Prof. John Blank, LL. D., or
Dr. John Blank, F. R. S.

In addressing the President of an institution, his official title should be given after the name; as,—

To Benjamin Ide Wheeler, LL. D.,
President of University of California.

To James R. Parker,
President First National Bank.

Examples of Form in the Address:—

The Hon. T. J. Geary,
Santa Rosa, Cal.

Messrs. D. Appleton & Co.,
77 & 79 Fifth Ave.,
New York City.

The Salutation varies with the tenor of the letter or the position occupied by the one addressed. Much depends upon the degree of intimacy between the writer and his correspondent. *Dear Sir* is a title of respect, not of affection, and is used in addressing business men and strangers generally. *Dear Madam* is the corresponding form to use in addressing a lady who is a stranger to the writer. It is used in addressing a lady, married or unmarried, old or young. When writing to a business firm, the salutation may be *Dear Sirs* or *Gentlemen.* When addressing a committee or association of women, the proper salutation is *Ladies.* When writing to a minister of the gospel, the salutation may be *Reverend Sir,* or *Rev. and dear Sir.* In addressing a friend, it may be *Dear Friend, Friend Jones, Friend Arthur, Dear Cousin, My dear Friend, Dear Miss Potter, My dear Boy, My dear Wife, Dearest Alice,* etc.

Dr. as an abbreviation of *Dear,* or *Gents* for *Gentle-*

men, is not only incorrect, but decidedly crude. Note the capitalization in the foregoing salutation forms. The salutation is followed either by a comma and dash or by a colon. If the body of the letter begins on the same line with the salutation, the salutation may be followed by a colon and dash.

Correct forms of Address and Salutation are here given:—

Mr. James D. Field,
Mifflintown, Pa.
Dear Sir:
Your letter of July 10th, etc.

Ginn & Co., Publishers,
13 Tremont Place,
Boston, Mass.
Dear Sirs:—Enclosed find, etc.

Miss Mary F. Smith,
235 Clark St., Chicago.
Dear Madam,—
Please accept my thanks, etc.

Miss Mary F. Smith,
235 Clark St.,
Chicago, Ill.
Dear Madam:
Please, etc.

To strangers or superiors the complimentary close is, *Truly yours, Respectfully yours, Very respectfully yours, Yours truly, Very truly yours,* etc.

In letters of friendship more endearing terms are employed: *Your friend, Ever your friend, Your sincere friend, Your loving daughter, Your affectionate mother, Sincerely and gratefully yours, With kindest regards, ever your friend, Believe me sincerely yours.*

Be sure to write "yours" after the closing phrases *Affectionately, Very sincerely, Very truly,* etc. *"Respectfully yours* is not in good taste between persons of equal social standing," writes Miss Helen E. Gavit.

The complimentary close should begin near the middle of the first line below the body of the letter; and, if occupying two or more lines, should slope to the right, like the address.

It is separated from the signature by a comma. Each line of the complimentary close should begin with a capital. The signature should be so written as to enable the person addressed to know at once the proper title to use in the answer. A lady, when writing to a stranger, should prefix to her signature, her title, *Mrs.* or *Miss,* unless in her letter she has indicated her title. A man, when addressing a stranger, should write his Christian name in full. J. M. Smith might be Joseph M. Smith, (Miss) Julia M. Smith, or (Mrs.) Jennie M. Smith.

The signature should be placed to the right-hand side, on the line next below the complimentary close. Note the capitals, punctuation marks, and form of the following models:—

(1)

Very truly yours,
Thomas R. Brooks.

(2)

Yours with sincere esteem,
Walter J. Otis.

(3)

I have the honor to be, Sir,
Your obedient servant,
William T. Wallace.

(4)

I am very sincerely,
Your friend,
Paul E. Everett.

(5)

Sincerely and gratefully yours,
Henry K. Davis.

(6)

Respectfully yours,
Miss Maud E. Benton (or)
(Miss) Maud E. Benton.

The Superscription includes the items that are written upon the envelope. It is arranged in either three or four lines. The first line—the name and title—is usually written across the middle of the envelope. The lines are so arranged as to cause each one to begin farther to the right than the preceding one, bringing the name of the state near the lower right-hand corner. As the outside of the envelope first attracts the eye of the receiver of a letter, and, in a way, introduces the writer, the superscription should be as neat and distinct as possible. All flourishes, all conceits of fancy, should be avoided. It is not in good taste to write messages on the envelope; as,

"In haste," "Deliver at once," "Important," etc. The sign % for "in care of," and the symbol # for the word "number," have long since been discarded.

"There is a wide difference of opinion as to the punctuation of a superscription. The writers of the old school maintain that a comma should end every line but the last, as it indicates the omission of a word. Rhetorically speaking, they are perfectly correct. The writers of the new school insist that, as punctuation is merely the separation of sentences and parts of sentences for clearness, the division into lines, in an address, answers the purpose of punctuation, and renders the comma superfluous. The generality of writers seem to follow the later practise, and, with the exception of abbreviations, omit all punctuation on the envelope."

Dr. Hart, of Cornell University, writes: "The difference between *Mrs. William Thompson* and *Mrs. Helen Thompson* is one of etiquette. A married woman whose husband is living, is properly addressed by the name of her husband, *e. g., Mrs. William Thompson.* If the husband is dead, the female [feminine] name is permissible; though some widows prefer the retention of the husband's name.

"In the envelope-address *Professor* is frequently, perhaps usually, abbreviated to *Prof.*, but the proper form in writing to a doctor of medicine is *John Chapman, M. D.* In any case do not begin the heading of your letter, *Dear Prof., Dear Doc.* The phrases have an unmistakable flavor of vulgarity. Begin, *My dear Professor, My dear Doctor.*"

The abbreviated forms of state names must be written with unmistakable distinctness. It is easy in careless writing to confound *Cal.* and *Col.; Pa.* and *Va.* and *La.; N. Y.* and *N. J.; Mass.* and *Miss.; Penn.* and *Tenn.; Me.* and *Mo.*, etc. Instead of writing *New York, N. Y.,* in addressing a letter to the metropolis, write *New York City,* if you would be in keeping with present vogue. The name of the county or the box number may be placed near the lower left-hand corner of the envelope, instead of being placed under the name of the post-office, as a third line. The stamp should be placed near the upper right-hand corner of the envelope, not only for the sake of neatness, but also for the convenience of the post-office clerk.

Notes are classified as formal and informal. The tone and style of an informal note are determined by the taste and judgment of the writer. The style of a formal note is governed by the comparatively fixed rules of social etiquette. Formal social notes include notes of invitation, acceptance, regret, congratulation, and condolence. Formal notes are always written in the third person. The time and place of writing are given below the body of the note, and well toward the left-hand side. The year is omitted from the date.

The form and style of such notes can be learned most easily by examining a few specimens:—

(1)

Mr. and Mrs. Charles A. Dickson request the pleasure of your company at dinner on Wednesday evening, August 14, at 7:30.

(2)

Mr. and Mrs. B. F. Taylor
invite you to meet their guest,
Dr. Arthur D. Van Dyke,
on Thursday evening, at 8 o'clock.
235 Post Street.

(3)

Mr. James E. Platt accepts with pleasure the very kind invitation of Mr. and Mrs. B. F. Taylor to meet their guest, Dr. Arthur D. Van Dyke, on Thursday evening, at eight o'clock.
Wednesday, Oct. 10th.

(4)

Mr. James E. Platt regrets that a previous engagement will prevent his accepting Mr. and Mrs. B. F. Taylor's kind invitation to meet their guest, Dr. Arthur D. Van Dyke, on Thursday evening, at eight o'clock.
Wednesday, Oct. 10th.

(5)

Miss Edna Bain accepts with pleasure the kind invitation of Mr. and Mrs. Charles A. Dickson to dinner at seven-thirty, Wednesday evening, August 14.
Friday, Aug. 8th.

The following, taken from "The Etiquette of Correspondence," by H. E. Gavit, are good examples of Informal Invitations:—

Dear Miss Graham,—

If you and your brother have no engagement for Tuesday evening, may we hope that you will give us the pleasure of dining with us quite informally at seven-thirty?

Very sincerely yours,
Marian Lawrence.

Saturday, May the tenth.

Dear Elsie,—

May we count on you for Thursday evening at eight-thirty? Felix will play for us, and that is always such a treat. Do come.

Affectionately yours,
Marie.

[*Date.*]

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS.

1. If two pages suffice for a letter, they should be the first and third pages. If the letter is long, the pages should be filled consecutively.

2. The closing words of a letter should never be written in the margins or across the top of a page. No part of a letter should be written in vertical lines. Such eccentricities are always in bad taste. "Good breeding and refinement are rarely expressed in extremes of any kind."

3. Only the best quality of paper should be used in social correspondence. Ruled paper should not be used except for business correspondence. There is no paper in better taste nor of more enduring fashion than the plain white or the delicate tints ot ivory and cream. Only black ink of the best quality should be used.

4. Such abbreviations as *rec'd, y'rs, aff' yours, resp'ly,* & (for *and*), etc., are not admissible.

5. It is very seldom that one should call a letter a "favor." "Came to hand" is a phrase of questionable taste. Avoid the hackneyed phrase, "Hoping this will find you, as it leaves me, in good health."

6. Though one should not be punctilious in avoiding the pronoun *I,* it should be used sparingly. Its very frequent use savors of egotism. The passive voice of the verb is helpful in this.

7. For each new topic begin a new paragraph.

8. Do not underline words and sentences for emphasis, nor indulge in apologies and long prefaces of explanation.

9. When writing a letter of request to a mere acquaintance, or to a stranger, it is good form to enclose a postage-stamp. We should not impose any pecuniary obligation upon a stranger.

10. The letters *st, th, nd,* after ordinal numerals, are now generally omitted in an address. Do not forget that when they are used they are not abbreviations.

11. Invitations to dinner or luncheon require immediate answers; but invitations to weddings, receptions, and evening entertainments require no answer in acceptance, unless an answer has been requested. Written regrets may be sent within three or four days after the receipt of the invitation. The answer is always addressed to the person in whose name the invitation is given.

12. An invitation should not be answered on a visiting card or on a postal-card, nor on business paper or on a half sheet of note paper.

13. When an invitation is given in the name of both husband and wife, the answer should contain an allusion to each; but the envelope should be addressed to the wife alone.

14. The words "Present," "Addressed," or "En Ville," should not be placed upon the envelope. It is a custom no longer observed.

15. An occasion for a *postscript* (P. S.) should be avoided.

16. It is not good form to begin a sentence without a subject; as, "Have just returned from," etc., or, "Would be glad to meet," etc.

17. "Avoid flourishes and peculiar and striking capitals in the signature. They are an evidence of vanity and vulgarity, not of individuality and character, as is sometimes imagined."

18. Remember that written words may sometimes become very unpleasant witnesses. It is ever well that thinking precede writing.

PART V.

THE ART OF SENTENCE BUILDING.

Every expressed thought is a sentence. "The sentence is the mould into which all our thinking is run." It is the unit of thought and speech. All speaking and writing must, therefore, be done in sentences. We see, then, that the sentence is a tool which everybody has occasion to use. And, like all other tools, it is used to little purpose, if not used well. Here, as elsewhere, skilful use is the reward of long and painstaking practise.

The purely grammatical requisites of a good sentence have been indicated in the chapter on "Slips in Syntax." But there are other considerations in the making of sentences. As to every sentence, these questions are pertinent:—

(*a*) Are the words so aptly chosen and marshaled as to express the thought clearly?

(*b*) Does the sentence express but one central thought?

(*c*) Could the sentence be made to affect the ear more pleasantly?

(*d*) Does the sentence express the thought with due emphasis or force?

(*e*) Is it concise?

(*f*) Does it contain all needful words?

This chapter will be devoted to a discussion of the principles suggested by these questions.

Both as to quantity and structure, sentences are of various kinds. As to quantity, they are long or short; as to structure, they are simple, compound, or complex; loose, periodic, or balanced.

In the writings of the best authors, long and short sentences are duly interspersed. A long succession of sentences of the same length, whether they are short or long, is wearisome. Neither can it be determined by rule in what proportion long and short sentences should be combined. These questions must be left to the writer's discretion and taste. A writer must be on his guard, however, to keep his sentences from running to extremes on either side. Every subject of discourse contains many thoughts that lend themselves naturally to short sentences; others, to long sentences. When all, or nearly all, the sentences are short, the rhythm is impaired, and the style becomes flippant, jerky, abrupt, and the reader experiences a sense of *unsatisfiedness*. On the other hand, when long sentences largely preponderate, the style becomes lumbering and heavy, and interpretation more difficult. The effect produced by a due proportion of short sentences is to give to a passage lightness, vivacity, emphasis, and ease of apprehension; a due proportion of long sentences gives to it dignity, completeness, rhythm, and cadence. The feelings and the decisions of the will naturally flow into short sentences; weighty and complex reasonings, into long sentences.

As a rule, the first sentence of a paragraph should be short and pithy. It may often contain in a nutshell

all that is explained and amplified in the succeeding sentences of the paragraph. A short sentence catches the eye readily. It is easily remembered. For that reason careful writers are wont to put the kernel of a thought into a short, crisp, pointed sentence. Such short sentences are usually followed up and completed with longer sentences of explanation, illustration, or limitation. Sometimes, however, the branches of a thought strike so deeply into its central trunk as to make it necessary, for the sake of oneness of effect, to embody all in one sentence.

In the following passage from Farrar's "Life of Christ," notice how the first sentence, which is short, is explained and illustrated by the second, which is long:—

"There is scarcely a scene or object familiar to the Galilee of that day, which Jesus did not use as a moral illustration of some glorious promise or moral law. He spoke of green fields and springing flowers, and the budding of the vernal trees; of the red or lowering sky; of sunrise and sunset; of wind and rain; of night and storm; of clouds and lightning; of stream and river; of stars and lamps; of honey and salt; of quivering bulrushes and burning weeds; of rent garments and bursting wineskins; of eggs and serpents; of pearls and pieces of money; of nets and fish. Wine and wheat, corn and oil, stewards and gardeners, laborers and employers, kings and shepherds, travelers and fathers of families, courtiers in soft clothing and brides in nuptial robes—all these are found in His discourses."

Observe how naturally, in the following excerpt, the short sentences, simple and vigorous, lead up to a single long sentence, which sums up and rounds off the whole thought. The passage is from President Lincoln's Gettysburg Address:—

"Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedi-

cated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this; but in a larger sense we can not dedicate, we can not consecrate, we can not hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us—the living—rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth."

How happily, in the extract below, from Ruskin, the second sentence, which is long, explicates the short sentence which precedes it. How aptly the whole is then touched by the short closing sentence.

"Of all inorganic substances, acting in their own proper nature, and without assistance or combination, water is the most wonderful. If we think of it as the source of all the changefulness and beauty of clouds; as the instrument by which the earth was modeled into symmetry, and its crags chiseled into grace; then in the form of snow; in the foam of the torrent—in the morning mist, in the broad lake and glancing river; finally in that which is to all human minds the best emblem of unwearied, unconquerable power, the wild, various, fantastic, tameless unity of the sea; what shall we compare to this mighty, this universal element, for glory and for beauty? It is like trying to paint a soul."

One of the advantages of the long sentence is that by it we are able to state in the same grammatical unity—in the same breath, as it were—a whole thought with all its essential ramifications. As an illustration, I cite the following from Ruskin:—

"The work of the great spirit of nature is as deep and unapproachable in the lowest as in the noblest objects; the Divine mind is as visible in its full energy of operation on every lowly bank and moldering stone, as in the lifting of the pillars of heaven and settling the foundations of the earth; and to the rightly-perceiving mind there is the same infinity, the same majesty, the same power, the same unity, and the same perfection, manifest in the casting of the clay as in the scattering of the cloud, in the moldering of the dust as in the kindling of the day-star."

The short sentence may often be used to advantage for purposes of emphasis, "the successive condensed assertions being like so many hammer strokes." Note the following illustration from Macaulay:—

"We have had laws. We have had blood. New treasons have been created. The press has been shackled. The habeas corpus act has been suspended. Public meetings have been prohibited. The event has proved that these expedients were mere palliatives. You are at the end of your palliatives. The evil remains. It is more formidable than ever. What is to be done?"

It should be remembered that brevity is not opposed to *many* words, but *useless* words,—to verbiage. A writer whose sentences are generally short, may be tautological and prolix; another whose sentences are, in the main, long, may be brief and forceful. It is safer, however, for writers of little experience to couch their thoughts in sentences comparatively short. It requires

a practised pen to construct a long sentence that is at the same time clear and consistent throughout. A writer must grow into long sentences; but he needs to guard against growing into too many.

The Periodic, the Loose, the Balanced structure of the sentence afford opportunity not only to secure variety of sentence *form*, but to enhance the *beauty*, and to promote the *energy* of style. A *periodic* sentence is one so constructed that neither the main thought nor the grammatical construction is completed until the close of the sentence; as,—

"Finally, brethren, whatsoever things are true, whatsoever things are honest, whatsoever things are just, whatsoever things are pure, whatsoever things are lovely, whatsoever things are of good report; if there be any virtue, and if there be any praise, think on these things." Phil. 4:8.

Observe that the foregoing sentence would not express a completed thought at any point before its close. In a periodic sentence all the subordinate elements are disposed of before the main thought, which they all qualify, is given. The preamble to our Federal Constitution is a good example. Find it, and commit it to memory.

A Loose sentence is one so constructed that a complete thought is expressed at one or more places before the end; as,—

"Milton's nature selected and drew to itself whatever was great and good from the parliament and from the court, from the conventicle and from the cloister, from the gloomy and sepulchral circles of the Roundheads and from the Christmas revel of the hospital Cavalier."

Notice that this sentence might be brought to a full stop after "great," after "good," after "parliament," after "court," after "conventicle," after "cloister," and

after "Roundheads," and at each of these points express a complete thought.

In a loose sentence the essential idea is given before the subordinate elements are given. It is easy in most cases to change a periodic sentence to a loose, and a loose sentence to a periodic. For example: "Milton always selected for himself the boldest literary services, that he might shake the foundations of debasing sentiments more effectually," is a loose sentence. By giving it the following cast, it is made periodic: "That he might shake the foundations of debasing sentiments more effectually, Milton always selected for himself the boldest literary services."

The following table from Professor A. S. Hill's "Principles of Rhetoric," shows how easy it is to change loose sentences into periodic sentences:—

LOOSE.	PERIODIC.
We came to our journey's end, at last, with no small difficulty, after much fatigue, through deep roads and bad weather.	At last, with no small difficulty, and after much fatigue, we came, through deep roads and bad weather, to our journey's end.
This was forbidden by taste, as well as by judgment.	This was forbidden *both* by taste and by judgment.
This disposition saves him from offending his opponents, and also from alienating his supporters.	This disposition saves him, *on the one hand*, from offending his opponents, on the other hand, from alienating his supporters.
He kept himself alive with the fish he caught, or with the goats he shot.	He kept himself alive *either* with the fish he caught, or with the goats he shot.
The world is not eternal, nor is it the work of chance.	The world is *neither* eternal nor the work of chance.

The Romans consider religion a part of virtue; the Jews, virtue a part of religion.	*While* the Romans consider religion a part of virtue, the Jews, on the contrary, consider virtue a part of religion.
His actions were frequently criticized, but his character was above criticism.	*Though* his actions were frequently criticized, his character was above criticism.
His word may be as good as his bond, but we have still to ask how good his bond is.	*Granting that* his word is as good as his bond, we have still to ask how good his bond is.

As a succession of related thoughts may be expressed in a series of short sentences, or in a series of long sentences, or in sentences which are now long, now short, so, too, the same thoughts may be expressed in loose, or in periodic sentences, or in a combination of both. The essential flexibility and plasticity of sentences make it easy to give to style the "spice" of variety.

It should be remembered, too, that a sentence is not always wholly loose or wholly periodic. The same sentence, especially if long, may begin with the periodic structure and remain so to a certain point, and then be finished in the loose form. The following sentence is periodic as far as the word "beautiful," and loose from that point on:—

"Endowed with a rare purity of intellect, a classic beauty of expression, a yearning tenderness toward all of God's creatures, no poet appeals more tenderly than Shelley to our love for the beautiful, to our respect for our fellow-men, to our heartfelt charity for human weakness."

A sentence that combines both the periodic and the loose structure is called by some authors a *compromise* sentence.

Each of these two classes of sentences has its advantages. A loose sentence is not necessarily a bad sentence. It is a type of structure just as legitimate and just as susceptible of artistic finish as the periodic. In perhaps every discourse there are many more loose than periodic sentences. Rarely does one find more than two successive periodic sentences, especially if the sentences are long. Periodic sentences need to be constantly relieved by loose ones.

The loose structure has the advantage of being more natural, easy, and colloquial than the periodic. For this reason it is especially adapted to familiar kinds of discourse, such as conversation, letters, and easy narrative. It is less formal and artificial than either the periodic or the balanced structure.

If used to excess, however, loose sentences give style a careless, ragged appearance. Unless loose sentences are constructed with great care, they may become a mere string of phrases and clauses, with little or no firmness or coherence. There is danger, too, when many loose sentences are used in succession, that all will begin in the same way, or end in the same way. A succession of loose sentences should exhibit variety of structure.

The advantages of the periodic structure are:—

1. *Neatness* and *finish,* especially when the sentences are short.

2. It gives to long sentences *firmness, dignity,* and *impressiveness.*

3. It promotes *energy* of expression, since all parts of the sentence are made to look to one point—the close.

4. By holding the significant idea in reserve until the

qualifying details are disposed of, it excites the *interest,* and sustains the attention of the reader or hearer.

5. It makes easy the skilful management of a large number of subordinate elements, since they all must be arranged with reference to one point—the paramount idea.

The unpractised writer needs to guard himself against the temptation to run too many of his sentences into the periodic mould. An undue number of periods* gives to style a stiff, formal, artificial effect. As all the preliminary details of a period must be held in mind until the key-word is reached, it is easy to make the number too large to be carried, and the reader's attention is not stimulated, but distracted. When the details are many, the *compromise* form is always at hand to help the writer out. This period from the Bible is typical as to length: "He that spared not His own Son, but delivered Him up for us all, how shall He not with Him also freely give us all things?" Rom. 8: 32.

Besides the loose and the periodic sentence, it is necessary to give attention to the balanced sentence. A balanced sentence is one in which corresponding parts are made similar in form in order to place in bold relief a similarity or a contrast in thought. The parallel parts may be phrases or clauses. The chief value of the balanced structure lies in the fact that it is neat, compact, and symmetrical. It is pleasing to the ear and helpful to the memory. This fact explains why so many verses in the Psalms and in the book of Proverbs are so easily remembered. The balanced structure is a device by

*Periodic sentences are usually called **periods.**

which opposite qualities of the same person or thing are set over against each other, and thus brought into conspicuous relief.

Notwithstanding its many advantages, the balanced sentence must not be used with undue frequency. The very rhythm of it strongly tempts one to use it where no actual parallelism of likeness or contrast exists. "The habit of clothing similar thoughts in clauses, or phrases . . . of about equal length and similar structure may easily become a mannerism. A series of balances grows speedily wearisome, and becomes offensively regular."

Dr. Johnson and Lord Macaulay were both partial to the balanced sentence, and often used it to excess. That is one of the reasons why Johnson's style is often stiff and artificial. But used with moderation, the balanced structure is one of the potent devices for securing vivacity and force in expression. The Bible is replete with the best examples of the balance. The following will serve as examples. You will readily recognize those from the Bible.

"My son, hear the instruction of thy father, and forsake not the law of thy mother; for they shall be an ornament of grace unto thy head, and chains about thy neck."

"The lip of truth shall be established forever; but a lying tongue is but for a moment."

"There is that maketh himself rich, yet hath nothing; there is that maketh himself poor, yet hath great riches."

"Her ways are ways of pleasantness, and all her paths are peace."

"For he that soweth to his flesh shall of the flesh reap corruption; but he that soweth to the Spirit shall of the Spirit reap life everlasting."

"And the work of righteousness shall be peace; and the effect of righteousness quietness and assurance forever."

"I will sing unto the Lord as long as I live; I will sing praise to my God while I have my being."

"Humbleness is always grace; always dignity."

"It was pride that changed angels into devils; it is humility that makes men as angels."

"They that know God will be humble; they that know themselves can not be proud."

"The dictionary is a cemetery for dead words as well as a home for living ones."

"Holiness is not the way to Christ, but Christ is the way to holiness."

"If a good face is a letter of recommendation, a good heart is a letter of credit."

"He who has health, has hope; he who has hope, has everything."

"Hurry is the mark of a weak mind; despatch, of a strong one."

"He who receives a benefit should never forget it; he who bestows one should never remember it."

"Our thanks should be as fervent for mercies received as our petitions for mercies sought."

"Better to get up late and be wide awake then, than to get up early and be asleep all day."

"As the flower is before the fruit, so is faith before good works."

"To find fault is easy; to do better may be difficult."

"Bad men excuse their faults; good men forsake theirs."

"Nothing is so strong as gentleness; nothing so gentle as real strength."

"Our greatest glory consists not in never falling, but in rising every time we fall."

"The best thing to give to your enemy is forgiveness; to an opponent, tolerance; . . . to your child, a good example; to a father, deference; to your mother, that which will gladden her heart; to yourself, respect; to all men, charity."

"Greatness lies not in being strong, but in the right using of strength."

In the following excerpt from Ruskin's "Queen of the Air," observe how many contrasted clauses, phrases, and even words, are balanced:—

"I believe we can nowhere find a better type of a perfectly free creature than in the common house-fly. Nor free only, but brave; and irreverent to a degree which I think no human republican could by any philosophy exalt himself to. There is no courtesy in him; he does not care whether it is king or clown whom he teases; and in every step of his quick mechanical march, and every pause of his resolute observation, there is one and the same expression of perfect egotism, perfect independence and self-confidence, and conviction of the world's having been made for flies. Strike at him with your hand, and to him, the mechanical fact and external aspect of the matter is what to you it would be if an acre of red clay, ten feet thick, tore itself up from the ground in one massive field, hovered over you in the air for a second, and came crashing down with an aim. That is the external aspect of it; the inner aspect, to his fly's mind, is of quite natural and unimportant occurrence—one of the momentary conditions of his active life. He steps out of the way of your hand, and alights on the back of it. You can not terrify him, nor govern him, nor persuade him, nor convince him. He has his own positive opinion on all matters; not an unwise one, usually, for his own ends; and will ask no advice of yours. He has no work to do—no tyrannical instinct to obey. The earthworm has his digging; the bee, her gathering and building; the spider, her cunning network; the ant, her treasury and accounts. All these are comparative slaves, or people of vulgar business. But your fly, free in the air, free in the chamber—a black incarnation of caprice—wandering, investigating, flitting, flirting, feasting at his will, with rich variety of choice in feast, from the heaped sweets in the grocer's window to those of the butcher's back yard, and from the galled place on your cab-horse's back to the brown spot in the road, from which, as the hoof disturbs him, he rises with angry republican buzz—what freedom is like his?"

Each of the foregoing balanced sentences that con-

tain contrasts is what rhetoricians call a figure of antithesis.

Let the student now try his hand at turning the following loose sentences into the periodic mould:—

We have no opportunity to make money or to spend money.

Why should he disgrace himself and his friends by getting money in this way, when he could have whatever he needed by asking for it?

You must act promptly, taking the risk of mistake, or else you must perhaps let slip the only opportunity that you will have to gain your object.

There are to be accommodations for a larger attendance at the next football game than ever before, I hear.

The number of subjects to be taught multiplies, and so must the means of instruction be increased.

The enemies of the public school are in favor of this measure; the friends of the school are opposed to it.

He had the years of youth, yet he had the wisdom of age.

The fire swept on, and with its advance gained force and range, and left in ashes the town, and in terrible desolation the surrounding country for miles in every direction.

He came now to the crisis of his life, struggled, fell back, got courage again, made another vigorous effort, stood firm and strong against the heavy odds, and finally conquered.

He walks rapidly so as to get the benefit of the exercise.

The general was now compelled to take the defensive, having been surprised by the arrival of the fresh troops on the opposite side.

I should urge you to come out of your sick-room, get the strength of this invigorating air, enjoy this constant sunshine, and know again what it is to live, if you were here.

He came upon me suddenly so that I had no time to avoid him or to prepare for him.

What a number of men is in this degrading business who ought to be able to do something worthy of human beings.

These young men had been trained at home to promptness, diligence, and honesty; and so, when thrown upon their own resources in this new country, they soon showed in their rise to wealth and influence the value of early discipline.

There are many things taught in these days which we may fail to know without suffering from our ignorance.

He spoke eloquently, and so won over the jury to his side.

Rigorous discipline is essential, not only to success, but to safety in the army and the navy.

She has a sweet, sympathetic voice, and therefore gives pleasure to all her hearers who are not critical.

It is impossible for a new man, if at all indolent, to have any success here, because of the scarcity of openings, the close competition, and the energy of the native inhabitants.

The mind is crippled and contracted by perpetual attention to the same ideas; just as any act or posture, long continued, will disfigure the limbs.

Language is a dead letter till the spirit within the poet himself breathes through it, gives it voice, and makes it audible to the very mind.

"That man, I think, has had a liberal education who has been so trained in youth that his body is the ready servant of his will, and does with ease and pleasure all the work that, as a mechanism, it is capable of; whose intellect is a clear, cold, logic engine, with all its parts of equal strength, and in smooth working order; ready, like a steam engine, to be turned to any kind of work, and spin the gossamers as well as forge the anchors of the mind; whose mind is stored with a knowledge of the great and fundamental truths of Nature and of the laws of her operations; one who, no stunted ascetic, is full of life and fire, but whose passions are trained to come to heel by a vigorous will, the servant of a tender conscience; who has learned to love all beauty, whether of nature or of art, to hate all vileness, and to respect others as himself."—*Huxley.*

When related words, or phrases, or clauses, or sentences are placed in the order of their importance or intensity, the least important standing first, we have what is called a Climax. A climax helps to make the expression of thought *vigorous.* When the weaker terms are placed after the stronger, the expression becomes flat, insipid. Such an arrangement is called *bathos,* or anti-climax. The word *climax* is from a Greek word meaning ladder. The derivation suggests that a climax is a form of expression in which the parts *grow* in strength and significance to the close. This arrangement satisfies the ear and stimulates the mind.

The anti-climax is sometimes intentionally used to give humor or satire to a statement. The climax produces an ascending effect; the anti-climax a descending. The one waxes; the other wanes.

In the following sentence the thought waxes, and is therefore a climax: "It is an outrage to bind a Roman citizen; to scourge him is an atrocious crime; to put him

to death is almost parricide; but to crucify him—what shall I call it?"

In the following the thought wanes, and is an anti-climax: He lost his friends, his money, his dog, and his jack-knife at one fell swoop.

The following will serve to illustrate more fully the climacteric structure:—

"Since Concord was lost, friendship was lost; fidelity was lost; liberty was lost—all was lost!"

"I plead for the rights of laboring men, for the rights of struggling women, for the rights of helpless children."

"What a piece of work is man! How noble in reason! how infinite in faculty! in form and moving, how express and admirable! in action, how like an angel! in apprehension, how like a god!"

"They gaze, turn giddy, rave, and die."

"All his books are written in a learned language; in a language which nobody hears from his mother or his nurse; in a language in which nobody ever quarrels, or drives bargains, or makes love; in a language in which nobody ever thinks."

"The place was worthy of such a trial. It was the great hall of William Rufus, the hall which had resounded with acclamations at the inauguration of thirty kings; the hall which had witnessed the just sentence of Bacon and the just absolution of Somers; the hall where the eloquence of Strafford had for a moment awed and melted a victorious party inflamed with just resentment; the hall where Charles had confronted the High Court of Justice with the placid courage which has half redeemed his fame."

"And the rain descended, and the floods came, and the winds blew, and beat upon that house; and it fell; and great was the fall of it." Matt. 7:27.

As a final example, I insert the whole of the thirteenth chapter of 1 Corinthians. Observe not only the climaxes it contains, but notice especially how simple, crisp, and

idiomatic is the diction. Commit the whole passage to memory. Practise the elocution of it:—

"Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels, and have not charity, I am become as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal. And though I have the gift of prophecy, and understand all mysteries, and all knowledge; and though I have all faith, so that I could remove mountains, and have not charity, I am nothing. And though I bestow all my goods to feed the poor, and though I give my body to be burned, and have not charity, it profiteth me nothing. Charity suffereth long, and is kind; charity envieth not; charity vaunteth not itself, is not puffed up, doth not behave itself unseemly, seeketh not her own, is not easily provoked, thinketh no evil; rejoiceth not in iniquity, but rejoiceth in the truth; beareth all things, believeth all things, hopeth all things, endureth all things. Charity never faileth; but whether there be prophecies, they shall fail; whether there be tongues, they shall cease; whether there be knowledge, it shall vanish away. For we know in part, and we prophesy in part. But when that which is perfect is come, then that which is in part shall be done away. When I was a child, I spake as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child; but when I became a man, I put away childish things. For now we see through a glass, darkly; but then face to face; now I know in part, but then shall I know even as also I am known. And now abideth faith, hope, charity, these three; but the greatest of these is charity."

NOTE.—The author can think of no exercise more profitable to the student at this point than a thorough drill in the expression—the elocution—of the most interesting examples of Balance and Climax given above. In such a drill the emotions, as well as the understanding, are called into play. Good reading is far more an affair of the heart than of the head. No one ever becomes impressive as a reader or speaker until his intellect becomes gently yet completely suffused with emotion. The head has but two eyes, the heart a thousand. There is only one avenue over which the student can find his way into the heart of a piece of genuine literature, and that is through his own heart. Doctor Corson has said that the only test of one's apprehension of a literary selection is his ability to give it natural, and hence effective, expression. In short, the power to express thought with due force, with propriety and ease, is the badge of real scholarship.

Another way of securing energy of expression is to give sentences occasionally the interrogative form instead of the declarative. Such a question is not asked for information. It is simply an emphatic way of affirming or denying something. It is generally referred to as the figure of Interrogation. The judicious use of this figure helps to insure variety of sentence structure, and thus relieve monotony of expression. If Jesus had said, "The life is more than meat, and the body is more than raiment," He would have expressed the thought clearly, but not so forcefully as He did by putting the affirmation thus: "Is not the life more than meat, and the body than raiment?" Paul's questions, "Who goeth a warfare any time at his own charges? who planteth a vineyard, and eateth not the fruit thereof?" are an emphatic way of saying, "No man goeth a warfare any time at his own charges; no man planteth a vineyard and eateth not the fruit thereof." Paul was a master of effective speech. He understood and employed all the resources of the Greek tongue. Perhaps that is one of the reasons why the Holy Spirit gave the greater part of the New Testament through Paul.

What a strong denial is expressed in, "Can the Ethiopian change his skin, or the leopard his spots?" How emphatic is Patrick Henry's denial, when put thus: "Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery?". "Who shall lay anything to the charge of God's elect?" is a vigorous way of saying, "No one shall lay anything to the charge of God's elect."

The literature of oratory, as well as sacred literature,

is replete with questions used for the purpose of giving point and animation to language.

It is desirable, sometimes, to throw into striking prominence a particular word, phrase, or clause of a sentence. This is done by placing such element in the most emphatic position in the sentence. Any element of a sentence is thrown into bold relief by placing it out of its ordinary position. By this device we can throw the emphasis on almost any part of the sentence we wish. Such change of position is called Inversion.

The most emphatic places in a sentence are the beginning and the end. These places catch the eye most readily. At the beginning of a sentence or clause is the ordinary position of the subject; at the end, that of the predicate. Hence, the subject is emphasized by being placed near or at the close of the sentence; the predicate, by being placed at the beginning. The predicate adjective, or the object of a verb may be placed before the verb; the modifier after the noun modified, etc. The principle of emphasis may be stated thus: *Give the important elements of the sentence the important places.*

Of this principle the translators of the Bible have, in many instances, availed themselves; as, "Blessed is he that cometh in the name of the Lord," and, "Silver and gold have I none; but such as I have give I thee." How much these sentences would be enfeebled by altering the arrangement into, "He that cometh in the name of the Lord is blessed," and, "I have neither silver nor gold, but I give thee what I have." See, also, the beatitudes, in the fifth chapter of Matthew.

Note the distinction given to the adverbs *on* and *forward* in this sentence by putting them before their re-

spective verbs: "On swept the infantry—forward streamed the cavalry." How conspicuous the adverb *seldom* in, "Seldom had such a sight been seen in Rome." Compare, "It may seem impossible, but I am determined to undertake the task," with, "Impossible as it may seem, the task I shall yet undertake." How much more spring and vigor in the second form than in the first. "Great is the Lord, and greatly to be praised" would lose not only in force, but in euphony as well, if arranged into "The Lord is great, and He is to be praised greatly." Note the loss in expressiveness when, "Scoundrel though he was, he still had some sense of honor," is changed to, "He still had some sense of honor, though he was a scoundrel."

The subordinate clause of a complex sentence should, as a rule, precede the principal clause; as, "*Small though the garrison was, they resolved to hold the fortress against an army ten times their number,*" and, "*If ye know these things,* happy are ye if ye do them."

Observe how much more emphatic the following sentences are as constructed in the first column than as constructed in the second. The examples are taken from Scott and Denney's "Composition-Rhetoric":—

I.	II.
1. Though he was an inveterate smoker himself, he would preach to his congregation on the evils of smoking.	1. He would preach to his congregation on the evils of smoking, though he was an inveterate smoker himself.
2. If his acts did not belie his words, he would exert greater influence.	2. He would exert greater influence if his acts did not belie his words.

3. When the time for action has come, the people always rise to the occasion.

4. Wherever you put him, he proves himself competent.

5. Provided you have plenty of good ideas, it is not very hard to write.

6. The hand of death was upon him; he knew it; and the only wish which he uttered was that *sword in hand* he might die.

7. It is always difficult to separate the literary character of a man who lives in our own time from his personal character. It is peculiarly difficult *in the case of Lord Byron* to make this separation.

3. The people always rise to the occasion, when the time for action has come.

4. He proves himself competent wherever you put him.

5. It is not very hard to write, provided you have plenty of good ideas.

6. The hand of death was upon him; he knew it; and the only wish which he uttered was that he might die *sword in hand.*

7. It is always difficult to separate the literary character of a man who lives in our own time from his personal character. It is peculiarly difficult to make this separation *in the case of Lord Byron.*

An appeal to the ear is helpful in finding the most emphatic position for the most emphatic parts of a sentence.

The writer needs to guard against making too many inversions. He may emphasize so much as not to emphasize at all. Energy of expression is not always desirable. Many sentences are most emphasized when not emphasized at all. You have heard the paradox, "So many things strike that nothing strikes." The principle here expressed is especially applicable to emphasis.

Brevity conduces to both energy and neatness of sentences. All needless words are so much dead weight. To overload a sentence with words is to dilute it. Whatever does not strengthen enfeebles. "The habit of writ-

ing compactly, of going straight to the point, of saying just what one has to say and then of stopping, is not always easy to acquire." Sentences concise in form and pregnant with thought are the weapons of a speaker or writer who is thoroughly in earnest. Sentences made up with "picked and packed" words, always cut. Brevity is not only the soul of wit, but the fire of fervency.

Professor Mead wrote: "Brevity does not, however, consist precisely in using few words, but in saying nothing superfluous. A narrative of ten pages is short if it contains nothing but what is necessary. A narrative of twenty lines is long if it can be contained in ten."

Brevity is opposed to tautology, verbosity, and prolixity. "Tautology consists in repeating, with mere change of words, what has been already said;" as, "He was very *fastidious* and *particular* and *hard to please.*" Here "particular" and "hard to please" repeat what is already expressed by "fastidious." In each of the following sentences the italicized words express virtually the same idea. Note the resulting feebleness of the sentences.

The teacher *criticizes* and *blames* and *finds fault with* the pupils continually.

The *king* issued a *royal* edict.

His answer was *vague* and *indefinite.*

The *universal* testimony *of all men* is that of all poetry Milton's is the most sublime.

He was always employed in *alleviating* and *relieving* the wants of others.

Verbosity consists in using words that do not necessarily repeat ideas, but are yet wholly superfluous. In

the sentences below, the italicized words should be cut out:—

Who doubts *but* that intemperance is growing?

He fell off *of* the horse.

Do you think he will accept *of* the gift?

I wrote *to* him a long letter last week.

Being content with deserving a triumph, he refused the honor of it.

I do not doubt *but* that he is sincere.

It is evident that we must open *up* the whole question again.

The different departments of science and of art *mutually* reflect light on each other.

They returned *back* again to the *same* city *from* whence they came *forth*.

From whence came they?

I detected its flavor without even *the* tasting *of* it.

I shall not waste my strength *for nothing*.

Prolixity consists in descending into unnecessary details,—in giving prominence to insignificant particulars. A prolix writer does not seem able to discriminate between the essentials and the non-essentials of a subject. He magnifies trifles at the expense of what is really important. Prolixity is, in effect at least, a synonym of tediousness. A bloated style is a heavy style, and a heavy style never fails to repel readers. I cite the following example from Professor Phelps:—

"A committee on street railways reports to the Legislature of New York in this manner: 'It is not to be denied that any system which demands the propulsion of cars at a rapid rate, at an elevation of fifteen or twenty feet, is not entirely consistent, in the public estimation, with the greatest attainable immunity from

the dangers of transportation.' No style deserves to be called perspicuous which needs a second reading. This specimen does so. What is the sense of it expressed shortly? Abandon the negative circumlocution, exchange long words for short ones, and speak without indirection. Then the statement is reduced to this: 'It is true that people think that a railway twenty feet above the street is dangerous.' That is all that the honorable committee meant. But it does not sound elaborate; therefore, the idea was bloated into the aldermanic diction."

Brevity may be secured by compressing clauses into phrases, and phrases into words; by using the most apt of a number of synonyms; by substituting a word in apposition for a relative clause; by the skilful use of figurative expressions; by selecting only suggestive particulars; and by avoiding the use of roundabout expressions,—usually called by that long word *circumlocution.*

Read the following, with the italicized parts left out, and note the gain in expressiveness. The examples are from "Rhetoric; Its Theory and Practise," by Phelps and Frink:—

The reason *why* she came home was *on account of* her illness.

The best explanation of his conduct is *to be attributed to* his early associations.

I shall go *from* thence to Boston.

From whence did it come?

You can do it equally *as* well.

She is a widow *woman* with several children.

It has ragged extremities *at both ends.*

They *both* came to see me to-day.

You and I *both* agree in this instance.

In the *universal* patriotism of *all* our people is the nation's bulwark.

You have my *grateful* thanks *and sincere gratitude* for this favor.

All my friends *without exception* are invited.

For two men to have precisely the same name is a great inconvenience to *both of* them.

Our own *littleness and* insignificance seems never so evident as when in a great crowd *of many other persons* who know nothing of us and who care nothing for us.

This is an original recipe *of his own.*

He bears this with great equanimity *of mind.*

We ought to respect an *old* veteran *who has fought for us.*

This has been thought to be a *universal* panacea for *every* political evil.

The wrong was *too* intolerable *to be borne.*

He has returned *again* to us.

They all *unanimously* consented to the change.

A gale *of wind* took off the unfinished roof of his prison house.

There is a fortune in a *new* discovery.

"Network is anything reticulated *or decussated at equal distances with interstices between the intersections."*

The *different* branches of study in this course *mutually* reflect light on each other.

He has been heard to reiterate *again and again* the story in which he gives an account of the *impediments and* hindrances *that obstructed his way* to the *final* success in which he at last won his wealth and reward.

The wealth of this man *in its rich accumulations* has hidden *and obscured* from *the* public gaze the unscrupulous *and unworthy* means by which it was *gathered and* acquired.

In his habitual silence on this subject, *which comes from his taciturn disposition,* he simply reveals a characteristic unwillingness to *lay* open his mind to others.

A writer may, however, be too concise to be clear, or even forceful. Professor Carpenter says that "young writers, especially those who try to be what is loosely called 'practical,' are often as likely to use too few words as too many." An experienced lawyer once said, "Brevity is sometimes overrated. The number of a man's words should be like the length of a blanket,—enough to cover the bed and to tuck in besides." One may forget "that a piece of writing may be so condensed as to be dense." "Verbosity," says Professor E. H. Lewis, "robs a theme of force; deficiency robs it of force and clearness." The omission of only a word or two often results in ambiguity. If I should say that I met the "secretary and treasurer" this morning, you would be in doubt as to whether I meant one person or two. The question, "Have you more interest in him than others?" might mean, "Have you more interest in him than others have?" or, "Have you more interest in him than you have in others?" Mr. Warner once said, "It makes one as hungry as one of Scott's novels." Strange that any of Scott's novels should ever get hungry. He meant, "It makes one as hungry as *does* one of Scott's novels." The main part of an infinitive should not be omitted at the end of a sentence; as, "He ate when he wished to," should be, "He ate when he wished to *eat.*" The preposition *at* must not be omitted before *home* in such constructions as, "He boards and sleeps *at* home." The preposition should not be omitted when used with days of the month; as, "The war began *on* the nineteenth of April." When two or

more connected nouns denote things that are to be distinguished from each other or emphasized, the article must be inserted before each noun; as: "The man was obliged to choose between a black and *a* blue suit." "The days of Charles II were the golden days of the coward, *the* bigot, and *the* slave. The omission of "that" in sentences like the following, defeats clearness: "He chose between the lot of the rich and *that* of the poor."

In spite of what was said under *Brevity,* a mere *Repetition* of adjectives, prepositions, nouns, pronouns, or verbs, often has the effect of giving distinctness, directness, prominence, euphony, or force to a statement. It is a device that, in order to serve its purpose, must be used with great skill. It is wholly a matter of literary taste and judgment. Observe the effect of the repetition indicated in the following sentences. Some of the repetitions are necessary to save the sentence from ambiguity. The examples are all from standard authors.

Every ancient and *every* modern language has contributed something *of* grace, *of* energy, or *of* music to Milton's poetry.

Did any brave Englishman who "rode into the jaws of death" at Balaklava serve England more truly than *did* Florence Nightingale?

The works of Clarendon and *of* Hume are the most authoritative and *the most* popular historical works in our language.

In America, millions of Englishmen were at war with the country from which their blood, *their* language, and *their* institutions were derived.

If civil society be the offspring of *convention,* that *convention* must be its law. That *convention* must limit

and modify all the descriptions of constitution which are formed under it.

Those who drove James from his throne, *who* seduced his army, *who* alienated his friends, *who* imprisoned him in his palace, *who* broke in upon his very slumbers by imperious messages, and *who* pursued him with fire and sword from one part of the empire to another, were his nephew and his two daughters.

Gentlemen, I am a Whig, a Massachusetts Whig, a Faneuil Hall Whig, a Revolutionary Whig, a constitutional Whig. If you break up the Whig party, sir, where am *I* to go?

Such are their ideas, *such* their religion, *such* their laws.

"For this people's heart is waxed gross, and their ears are dull of hearing, and their eyes they have closed; lest at any time they should *see* with their *eyes,* and *hear* with their *ears,* and should understand with their *heart,* and should be converted, and I should heal them."

Note the happy effect of repeating *charity,* in the thirteenth chapter of 1 Corinthians.

To use *specific* words instead of *generic* words, when practicable, makes a writer's style more vivid and forcible. There is very little difference between *specific* words and *concrete* words; between *generic* words and *abstract* words. *Sound* is generic; *creak, buzz, slam, clank, crash, roar, scream, rustle,* etc., are specific. *Animal, plant, flower, man,* are generic; *fox, ivy, rose, John Brown,* are specific. Most of our general and abstract words are of Latin origin. Most of our specific and concrete words are of Anglo-Saxon birth. Each class has its special uses.

By sometimes substituting specific for generic terms, a writer can make his diction more graphic and animated. Specific words, being narrower and more sensuous than generic words, are more easily grasped. They suggest mental pictures and images. They summon the eye or the ear to assist the mind in the work of interpreting them. Being more familiar to most persons, they are necessarily more interesting than their abstract neighbors.

To say, "The *crescent* is waning before the *cross*," is more animated than "*Mohammedanism* is disappearing before the progress of *Christianity*." The Psalmist might have exclaimed, "Thou dost preserve me," "protect me," "befriend me," but how much more forcefully he expressed the same thoughts by saying, "Thou art my rock," "my tower," "my fortress," "my shield." How much more vivid is "He fought like a tiger" than "He fought like an animal." Jesus uses *lily* as representative of all flowers when He says, "Consider the *lilies*, how they grow," etc.

What a mental picture is evoked by the words, "In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread." How indistinct in comparison are the words, "With hard work shalt thou earn the food thou eatest."

The following will serve further to illustrate this principle:—

I told him to his *beard* that he had deceived me. There are *tongues* in *trees*, *sermons* in *stones*, *books* in *brooks*, and good in everything. If you have *tears*, prepare to *shed* them now. The *palace* should not frown upon the *cottage*. Do men gather *grapes* of *thorns*, or *figs* of *thistles?* The *cattle* upon a *thousand* hills are

His. *Gray hairs* should be respected. They *strain* at a *gnat,* and *swallow* a *camel.* The *wolf* also shall dwell with the *lamb,* and the *leopard* shall lie down with the *kid;* the *cow* and the *bear* shall feed together. Cincinnatus followed the *plow.* Instead of the *thorn* shall come up the *fir* tree, instead of the *brier* shall come up the *myrtle* tree. Ye are the *salt* of the earth. Strike while the *iron* is hot. In these days *bayonets* think. She was a sprightly maid of sixteen *summers.* Strike for your *altars* and your *fires.* The *pulpit* and the *bench* should be above suspicion. Fiercely he brandished his glittering *steel.* The *bullet* should give way to the *ballot.* Take My *yoke* upon you, and learn of Me. God shall wipe away all *tears* from their eyes.

The most of these sentences are also examples of the figure of Metonymy.

The employment of suggestive Epithets, to a moderate extent, is conducive to beauty as well as vigor of expression. The examples below will sufficiently explain what suggestive epithets are.

"Drew *iron* tears down Pluto's cheek."—*Milton.*

"The *shrill-edged* shriek of a mother."—*Tennyson.*

"*Burly, dozing* bumblebee."—*Emerson.*

"Who take the *ruffian* billows by the top."—*Shakespeare.*

"I stole from court, *cat-footed* through the town."—*Tennyson.*

"The *star-dogged* moon."—*Coleridge.*

"Flax for the *gossiping* looms."—*Longfellow.*

"But to me, and my thought, it is wider
Than the *star-sown* vague of space."
—*Lowell.*

One of the most common and useful devices for purposes of explanation and description is that of pointing out a *likeness* between two things that are in all other respects unlike.

Such a comparison is termed a *Simile.* The comparison is usually expressed by such words as *so, as, like, just so,* and *as—so.* It is a device that was much used by the Teacher of teachers, as when He said, "O Jerusalem, Jerusalem, thou that killest the prophets and stonest them that are sent unto thee, how often would I have gathered thy children together, even *as* a hen gathereth her chickens under her wings, and ye would not." Read the thirteenth chapter of Matthew, and notice the many similes employed to make clear the various aspects of the kingdom of heaven. In the closing words of the sermon on the mount, are two bold similes, which are so well known that I need not cite them. Similes and metaphors shine like stars throughout the Old Testament. How apt and beautiful is the one found in Isaiah 55: 10, 11: "For as the rain cometh down, and the snow from heaven, and returneth not thither, but watereth the earth, and maketh it bring forth and bud, that it may give seed to the sower, and bread to the eater; *so* shall My word be that goeth forth out of My mouth; it shall not return unto Me void, but it shall accomplish that which I please, and it shall prosper in the thing whereto I sent it." How beautifully apt is this: "My doctrine shall drop *as* the rain, My speech shall distil *as* the dew, *as* the small rain upon the tender herb, and *as* the showers upon the grass." Deut. 32: 2. See also verses 11 and 12.

Note the beauty and aptness of the following cluster of similes from the fourteenth chapter of Hosea:—

"I will be *as* the dew unto Israel; he shall grow *as* the lily, and cast forth his roots *as* Lebanon. His branches shall spread, and his beauty shall be *as* the olive tree, and his smell *as* Lebanon. They that dwell under his shadow shall return; they shall revive *as* the corn, and grow *as* the vine; the scent thereof shall be *as* the wine of Lebanon."

Observe how the similes given below serve to embellish as well as to clarify thought.

"Jesus uttered words that stir the soul, *as* summer dews call up the faint and sickly grass."—*Theo Parker.*

"Men whose lives glided on, *like* rivers that water the woodlands, darkened by shadows of earth, but reflecting an image of heaven."—*Longfellow.*

Of the village preacher, Goldsmith wrote:—

"*As* some tall cliff, that lifts its awful form,
Swells from the vale, and midway leaves the storm,
Though round its heart the rolling clouds are spread,
Eternal sunshine settles on its head."

"*As* water does a sponge, so the moonlight
Fills the void, hollow, universal air."—*Shelley.*

Wordsworth wrote of Milton:—

"Thy soul was *like* a star, and dwelt apart;
Thou hadst a voice whose sound was *like* the sea,
Pure as the naked heavens, majestic, free."

"The happy associations of my early life, that before lay scattered, take beautiful shapes, *like* iron dust at the approach of the magnet."

One can *see* the white-dusted miller in this simile from Tennyson:—

"Him, *like the working-bee in blossom dust,*
Blanched with his mill, they found."

The simile's nearest neighbor is the *Metaphor*. The two figures are alike in essence. Both are based on comparison. In a simile the comparison is formally stated; in a metaphor it is implied. We use a metaphor when, instead of saying that one thing is *like* another in some particular, we say that it *is* the other, or speak of it as though it *were* the other. A metaphor is calling one thing by the name of another, for the purpose of making a deeper, more vivid, more picturesque impression on the mind of the reader or the hearer. A metaphor is really a compressed simile. The simile is especially conducive to clearness; the metaphor, to energy; both, to elegance.

Of all the figures of speech, the metaphor is the most serviceable. All literature is packed with metaphors. It is difficult to write a dozen lines without using one. In truth, nine-tenths of our English words that are of classical origin, are metaphors in disguise—*faded* metaphors. What was once their literal meaning has been lost, and their secondary or metaphorical signification alone remains.

When Goethe wrote, "Kindness *is the golden chain* by which society is bound together," he employed a metaphor. If he had written, "Kindness is *like* a chain; it binds society together," he would have employed a simile.

Simile: "Spare moments are like gold-dust,—small, but precious."

Metaphor: "Spare moments are the gold-dust of time."

Metaphors are particularly useful in giving form and tangibility to abstract ideas; as when David says, "Thy Word is a lamp unto my feet, and a light unto my path," "The Lord is my shepherd, I shall not want," and "The Lord God is a sun and a shield." "Prayer is the key

of the morning and the bolt of the night," wrote Beecher. "Prayer" is something abstract, but a "key" and a "bolt" are concrete enough. How this metaphor helps us to grasp one of the many good offices of prayer! The metaphor helps not only the understanding, but also the memory. A thought expressed in an appropriate metaphor is easily remembered. There is something about an apt metaphor that makes it "stick." Metaphors are also conducive to brevity. Were it not for the metaphorical construction, many of the most common thoughts would have to be expressed in a long, roundabout way.

In the light of what has been said, study the following examples of metaphor:—

"Censure is the tax a man pays to the public for being eminent."

"We are the prisoners of ideas."

"He is the very pineapple of politeness."

"The world's a bubble, and the life of man less than a span."

"Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested."

"Habit is . . . the enormous fly-wheel of society."

"His mind was wax to receive impressions, and marble to retain them."

"For what is your life? It is even a vapor, that appeareth for a little time, and then vanisheth away." James 4: 14.

"But whosoever drinketh of the water that I shall give him shall never thirst; but the water that I shall give him shall be in him a well of water springing up into everlasting life." John 4: 14.

"He [God] has furnace fires—kind furnace fires they

are, though they seem terrible to us—fires of disappointment and trouble, of grief and sickness and failure. Into these fires He puts us, and if we are the genuine limestone, fit to make mortar of, away go those ill-smelling gases,—obstinacy, self-conceit, selfishness, pride,—and we come out of the dreadful kiln—quicklime."—*A. R. Wells.*

There is a species of metaphor that consists in attributing the qualities of animals or of persons to inanimate objects, or in attributing human qualities to mere animals. Such a metaphor is known by the term *Personification.* The following examples are worth being committed to memory:—

"For ye shall go out with joy, and be led forth with peace; the mountains and the hills shall break forth before you into *singing,* and all the trees of the field shall *clap their hands.*" Isa. 55: 12.

"Soon as the evening shades prevail,
The moon takes up the wondrous tale;
And nightly to the listening earth,
Repeats the story of her birth;
While all the stars that 'round her burn,
And all the planets in their turn,
Confirm the tidings as they roll,
And spread the truth from pole to pole.

"What though in solemn silence all
Move 'round this dark terrestrial ball?
What though no real voice nor sound
Amid their radiant orbs be found?
In reason's ear they all *rejoice,*
And utter forth a glorious voice,
Forever singing as they shine,
'The hand that made us is divine.'"
—*Addison.*

"Earth, with her thousand voices, praises God."

"To him who in the love of nature holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language; for his gayer hours
She has a voice of gladness, and a smile,
And eloquence of beauty, and she glides
Into his darker musings with a mild
And healing sympathy that steals away
Their sharpness ere he is aware."

—*Bryant.*

When his emotions are aroused, a writer sometimes addresses absent persons as though they were present, the dead as though they were living, and impersonal things as though they were personal.

Such an address is what is meant by the figure of *Apostrophe.* Byron's "Apostrophe to the Ocean" is too well known to quote. Longfellow's apostrophe to the Union, under the figure of a ship, is also familiar. The Old Testament affords many examples. Read David's mournful address to his dead son Absalom. A good example is the first two verses of Isaiah 52, which I quote:—

"Awake, awake; put on thy strength, O Zion; put on thy beautiful garments, O Jerusalem, the holy city; for henceforth there shall no more come into thee the uncircumcised and the unclean. Shake thyself from the dust; arise, and sit down, O Jerusalem; loose thyself from the bands of thy neck, O captive daughter of Zion."

The following lines the poet Halleck addressed to his dead friend, the poet Drake:—

"Green be the turf above thee,
Friend of my better days!
None knew thee but to love thee,
None named thee but to praise."

"O death, where is thy sting? O grave, where is thy victory?"

Remember that only such apostrophes as are the spontaneous expression of intense feeling are legitimate. Any other would smack so much of design as to disgust the reader.

Strong feeling sometimes expresses itself in exaggeration, not to deceive, but to impress the reader, as when David exclaims, "Rivers of water run down my eyes because they keep not Thy law." An exaggerated statement of this kind is known by the term *Hyperbole.* Of Saul and Jonathan David said, "They were swifter than eagles, they were stronger than lions." In Shakespeare we have, "Falstaff, thou globe of flesh, spotted o'er with continents of sin." All trite or forced hyperboles serve only to deaden the reader's interest. If used too frequently, they lose their force.

Another figure that tends to make discourse keen and vivid is the *Epigram.* The term is applied to any terse, pointed saying having the nature of a proverb. The more pungent epigrams are those in which there is an apparent contradiction between the form of the language and the meaning really conveyed. An epigram of the latter sort has the nature of a paradox. The following verse will help us grasp the spirit of the epigram:—

"An epigram should be, if right,
Short, simple, pointed, keen, and bright,—
A lively little thing!
Like wasp, with taper body, bound
By lines—not many—neat and round;
All ending in a sting."

Reflect on the epigrams below until you see their significance, their spicy aptness. Note the play on words in some of them. Some are also metaphorical.

1. He spent his life trying to shoot big bullets from a small-bored gun.

2. Verbosity is cured by a large vocabulary.

3. Some people are too foolish to commit folly.

4. By indignities men come to dignities.

5. Unfortunate lady, how sad is your lot!
Your ringlets are red, your poems are not.

6. The favorite has no friends.

7. Never less alone than when alone.

8. It is a custom more honored in the breach than in the observance.

9. Language is the art of concealing thought.

10. A remedy worse than the disease.

11. He was conspicuous by his absence.

12. We can not see the woods for trees.

13. Not to know me argues yourself unknown.

14. Hell is paved with good intentions.

15. No pain, no pleasure.

16. The first shall be last, and the last first.

17. The half is greater than the whole. [Of very long sermons, for instance.]

18. Beauty, when unadorned, adorned the most.

19. When you have nothing to say, say it.

20. The child is father to the man.

21. The valiant taste death but once.

22. He said so many things that he didn't say anything.

23. When I am weak, then am I strong.—*Paul.*

24. While we look not at the things which are seen, but at the things which are not seen.—*Paul.*

Note the cluster of happy epigrams Paul employs in speaking of himself and colaborers in the gospel:—

25. "As deceivers, and yet true; as unknown, and yet well known; as dying, and, behold, we live; as chastened, and not killed; as sorrowful, yet alway rejoicing; as poor, yet making many rich; as having nothing, and yet possessing all things." 2 Cor. 6:8-10.

Remember that epigrams need the emphasis of infrequency. Where they abound they are seldom found.

Before we can feel secure in using metaphors, we need to learn how to detect counterfeit metaphors. I quote from Dr. E. H. Lewis:—

"A good figure of speech must be consistent. Although a lively imagination changes its metaphors from minute to minute, it must not change them so fast as to suggest ridiculous things. If the metaphor gets mixed, clearness and force go to the winds. The other day the writer heard a young man earnestly exclaim, 'Now I shall have to toe the bee-line!' The thought of that youth, lifted to a perilous position where his toes sought vainly in the trackless air for a 'bee-line,' was quite too much for the gravity of his hearers. This trope that failed to be a trope was about as effective as the famous lightning-change series of metaphors uttered by Sir Boyle Roche: 'Mr. Speaker, I smell a rat. I see him floating in the air. But I will nip him in the bud.' Mixed metaphor may arise from mere liveliness of imagination,—a good fault sometimes. More frequently it arises from vague thinking or from grandiloquence."

"A figure that is not in good taste is incomparably worse than no figure at all." A metaphor is said to be *mixed*, or *incongruous*, when made up of parts not consistent with each other; as, "He is *swamped* in the *meshes* of his argument." Here the word *swamp* brings before the mind the pictures of a bog, but *meshes* that of a network. The parts of the metaphor are not of the same piece; the figure is not homogeneous. It should be either,

"He is *swamped* in the *mire* of his *argument*," or "He is *entangled* in the *meshes* of his argument." Another mistake is to blend metaphorical with plain language. What is begun in metaphor is pieced out with plain language, and *vice versa;* as, "The strong *pillar* of the church had *fled*." Here *pillar* is figurative, and *fled* is literal. The statement should be either literal or metaphorical throughout; thus, "The most *influential* man of the church had *fled*," or "The strong *pillar* of the church had *fallen*."

I shall help you to restore force to the following faulty figures, only so far as to italicize the parts that are incongruous or otherwise inappropriate:—

1. His bosom was *swollen* with the *flames* of patriotism.

2. A *varnish* of morality makes his actions *palatable*.

3. He *kindles* the *slumbering* fires of passion.

4. *Solve* the *mazes* of this dark tragedy.

5. They are *brittle* wits, the edge whereof is soon *turned*.

6. *Pilot* us through the *wilderness* of life.

7. There is not a single *view* of human nature that is not sufficient to *extinguish* the *seeds* of pride.

8. Hope, the *balm* of life, *darts a ray of light* through the thickest gloom.

9. A *torrent* of superstition *consumed* the land.

10. The colonies were not yet *ripe* to *bid adieu* to British connection.

11. Chaucer was the *father of English poetry* and a *favorite of the king*.

12. No human happiness is so *serene* as not to contain some alloy.

13. Hawthorne did not care to *shine as a star* in the *upper crust of society.*

14. In the *current* of these mysterious and awful events we can not fail to see the *footprints* of an all-powerful *hand.*

15. These young men do not realize that they are *sowing* the *seeds* of a drunkard's *grave.*

16. This infamous business, as it is carried on to-day, must be wiped out, for every night its *tentacles enter* ten thousand homes and *drown* in scalding tears the *smile* on the face of innocent childhood.

17. To trace the allusions contained in them, to *unravel* the *obscurities* inwrapped in them, involves a degree of labor which few are willing to bestow.

18. Fancy sports on *airy wing,* like a *meteor* on the bosom of a summer cloud.

19. He is fairly *launched* on the *road* to preferment.

20. He *stooped* to such *lengths* of meanness.

21. The shot of the enemy *mowed down* our ranks with frightful rapidity. On every hand men and horses lay in universal carnage, like *scattered wrecks on a storm-beaten shore.*

22. I *bridle* in my struggling muse with pain,
That longs to *launch* into a bolder strain.

23. The *germ,* the *dawn* of a new *vein* in literature lies there.

24. The *voice* of England, which *sounded* so clearly at the last general election, would be *lost sight of.*

25. Throw open the *flood-gates* of democracy, and you *pave the way* for a general *conflagration.*

26. Italy is a narrow *tongue* of land, the *backbone* of which is formed by the Apenines.

If it is the office of a sentence to convey a thought, the first requisite of a good sentence is *Clearness.* Lucidity takes precedence of all other qualities of style. Force and beauty count for nothing if the sentence be not first clear, for clearness is the foundation upon which all other qualities of style are built. The opposite of clearness is known by the big word *ambiguity.* An ambiguous sentence is one that is open to two or more interpretations. A vague sentence is one that is so lacking in precision as to convey no thought definitely. Ambiguity, or vagueness of style, is a fatal blemish,—a blemish that readers will not brook.

The first requisite to clearness is clear, definite thinking on the part of the writer or speaker. One can not make his thought clearer to others than it is to himself. Haziness of thought must issue in haziness of expression.

The misplacing of any part or parts of a sentence nearly always results in ambiguity. Hence, one of the most important aids to clearness is *careful arrangement.* If one should write, "People ceased to wonder by degrees," it would be difficult for the reader to determine whether *by degrees* is intended to qualify *ceased* or *wonder.* By transposing the phrase *by degrees* to the beginning of the sentence, the phrase unmistakably modifies *ceased.* Hence, all phrases and clauses must be so ordered in the sentence as to make their grammatical relation unmistakably evident.

The dislocated parts of the following sentences are italicized. Give them their normal position in the sentence. Recast the sentence, if necessary.

1. Milton's "Paradise Lost" is a poem about Satan *divided into twelve parts.*

2. Various estimates have been made as to the time of the birth of Columbus *from the few facts which we have about his early life.*

3. They made it very unpleasant for their victim while he was being searched for booty *with their sarcasm.*

4. He spoke to the young men who had been intoxicated *most earnestly.*

5. *While playing ball one Sunday,* a pious old man spoke to him.

6. I learned what an inefficient teacher I was *later in life.*

7. He said that his traveling bag had been stolen *while sleeping in the car.*

8. Sometimes disturbances arise, but they are usually checked before much harm is done *by the policeman.*

9. The preacher spoke of the evils of gambling *without manuscript or note.*

10. *Riding quickly to the other end of the line,* the command of the officer came sharp and clear.

The italicized words in the following sentences should be removed to the position indicated by the star (*). Determine why.

1. Having *nearly* caught (*) one hundred fish, they were much elated.

2. She (*) reads the works of Kipling as they appear *eagerly.*

3. He *merely* talks of society affairs (*).

4. He is *neither* inclined to favor (*) protection nor absolute free trade.

5. She was *neither* qualified (*) by early training nor by later associations to govern a nation.

6. He has a very small income, as he *nearly* lost (*) all his property.

7. It is *probably* thought that he (*) will succeed.

8. The grains *mostly* cultivated here are (*) rye and oats.

9. Some people *only* succeed in (*) getting themselves into trouble.

10. Our army *nearly* took (*) a thousand prisoners.

11. The force of habit is *even* carried (*) into the sacred region of religion.

12. The twins *nearly* look (*) alike.

13. I would (*) like to come *very much.*

14. I *only* came (*) to look on.

15. I have (*) thought over what you said the other night *very carefully.*

16. (*) The first word of an example may *also* properly begin with a capital.

17. He *both* taught them (*) to read and to write.

18. He *neither* answered (*) my letter nor my card.

19. He was not competent *either* to teach (*) classics or mathematics.

20. Such a task would be *alike* barren of instruction and amusement (*).

21. It will not *merely* interest the (*) children, but also the parents.

22. You are *not only* mistaken in your (*) inferences, but also in your facts.

23. I have *only* received (*) one letter from her since she left.

24. He *only* rents (*) the store, not the house.

25. His dexterity *almost* appeared (*) miraculous.

26. He must (*) have wanted to see them *very much.*

27. I (*) forgot to sign my name to a letter *once.*

28. I fear that it will be necessary to *entirely* remodel it (*).

29. I (*) beg to *respectfully* recommend its adoption.

30. I scarcely *ever* remember (*) hearing one that I liked better.

31. (*) Everybody thought that it was destined to be a great city, *twenty years ago.*

32. (*) He came very near being struck *more than once* during the row.

33. (*) They followed his ascent, *step by step,* through telescopes.

Carelessness in the *use of pronouns* is a fruitful source of ambiguity. Every pronoun should be so placed as to enable the reader to see at a glance what antecedent the pronoun is meant to represent. Writers of considerable experience sometimes commit errors in dealing with pronouns. Here, if anywhere, vigilance is the price of uniform correctness.

The main devices for making the reference of the pronoun clear are: The employment of the demonstratives *this, that, these, those, the former,* and *the latter;* repetition of antecedent; and direct discourse. In the following sentence as it stands, the reference of the pronouns is wholly uncertain; by changing it to direct discourse all is made clear.

"He told his friend that if he did not feel better in half an hour, he thought he would better return." It is impossible to determine whether the speaker or the one spoken to "would better return." Change to "He said to his friend, 'If I (or you) do not feel better in half an hour, I think I (or you) would better return.'"

"He promised his father that he would pay his debts." Whose debts, his own or his father's, did he promise to pay? If he promised to pay his father's debts, the sentence should stand thus: "He promised his father that he would pay his father's debts." If he promised to pay his own, the sentence must be changed to direct discourse, thus: "He made this promise to his father, 'I will pay my debts.'"

Note the hopeless ambiguity that arises from the reckless use of pronouns, in the following:—

"On his way, he visited a son of an old friend, *who* had asked *him* to call upon *him* on his journey northward. *He* was overjoyed to see *him,* and *he* sent for one of *his* most intelligent workmen and told *him* to consider *himself* at *his* service, as *he himself* could not take *him* as *he* wished about the city."

By skilful repetition the ambiguity is cleared up; thus:

"On his way he visited an old friend's son, who had asked him to call, on his journey northward. *The host* was overjoyed to see him, and, sending for one of his most intelligent workmen, told him to consider himself at *the stranger's service,* as he himself could not take *his guest* as he could have wished about the city."

A clause introduced by a relative pronoun should be given such a position in the sentence as will make its

reference evident at once. In the sentence, "I have letters from college students and others *that* are curiosities in their way," the relative pronoun *that* has three possible antecedents,—*letters, students,* and *others.* All is made clear by giving the sentence the following cast: "From college students and others, I have received letters that are curiosities in their way."

The statement, "The figs were in small wooden boxes which we ate," should be, "The figs which we ate were in small wooden boxes." The sentence, "He must endure the foibles of others, who would have their kindness," should be, "He who would have the kindness of others must endure their foibles." The sentence, "The day has come of great rejoicing to many hearts, which we have looked for so long," should be, "The long-looked-for day of rejoicing to many hearts has come at last." Observe how a repetition saves the following sentence from ambiguity: "The lad can not leave his father; for if he should leave *his father, his father* would die." Gen. 44: 22.

The writer of "The intellectual qualities of the youth were superior to *those* of his raiment," meant to say, "The qualities of the youth's intellect were superior to those of his raiment." The sentence, "Mr. Jones has just received a letter from Mr. Smith, saying that *he* is expected to deliver the next annual address," should be, "Mr. Jones has just received a letter from Mr. Smith, saying that the *former* (or *Mr. Jones*) is expected to deliver the next annual address."

"My punishment did him good" might mean "The punishment I received did him good," or "The punishment I gave him did him good."

Every one who writes for the public is morally bound to make every sentence he writes as clear as it can be made. Clearness is, in its last analysis, truthfulness. Ambiguity is distortion, and distortion is essentially an untruth.

Every good sentence is a well-knit sentence. Its parts all cohere. It contains but one central thought. It may be long, and may be made up of a variety of clauses and phrases; but these clauses and phrases are strictly subordinated to the clause or clauses expressing the main thought. In short, a good sentence is symmetrical and firmly jointed. It exists for the sake of one thought,—a thought that stands out "with the high light upon it." The ideal sentence is an organism, from which everything that does not contribute to the completeness of the organism, is excluded. Good sentences rarely contain parentheses. They come to an easy, natural close. A sentence that meets these requirements is said to possess *Unity*. But unity is merely one of the conditions of clearness and force.

A sentence which wants unity is either shambling and rickety in structure, or heterogeneous in content. Professor Meiklejohn gives the following specimen of a loose-jointed sentence: "I asked him to show me his picture, which he did, and pointed out one in particular, a portrait of a young man, painted, he said, by Wilson."

Note the irrelevancy of the several thoughts in this sentence: "The admiral died in his ninety-first year, when the Thames was covered with ice eleven inches thick, during a severe winter when nearly all the birds per-

ished." What is here said regarding the condition of the Thames should be the subject of a distinct sentence.

Remember, too, that a good sentence does not contain more than one meaning of the same word. Thus: "This is my *duty* so long as I keep within the bounds of *duty*." "He *left* this world, *leaving* handsome fortunes to his children." "The letters of many men of *letters* are not distinguished above those of ordinary *letter*-writers." "Feathers are heavier than *nothing;* and *nothing* is heavier than lead; therefore, feathers are heavier than lead."

If a sentence is neat, compact, and symmetrical, it is sure to be clear, strong, and attractive.

PART VI.

PRACTICAL SYNONYMS DISCRIMINATED.

WITH EXERCISES.

In this chapter I shall discriminate not only many of the more practical English synonyms, but also those English words that are similar in sound and in derivation, and therefore often confounded.

The student should be required to use the words discriminated, in such a way as will exemplify the distinctions made.

1. **Answer, reply.** An *answer* is given to a question; a *reply* is made to an objection, an accusation, or a charge. An answer simply informs, while a reply is intended to confute or disprove. Witnesses answer the questions put to them in court; as, in such a case, it is information alone that is sought. But the counsel for the defendant replies to the arguments used by the counsel for the plaintiff. It is better, as a rule, to talk of answering a friend's letter than of replying to it.

From a good dictionary study the words, *response, rejoinder, retort, repartee.*

2. **Act, action.** Both words contain the idea of *doing;* but *action* contains the additional notion of continuity. This is aptly brought out in the phrase "an action at law." An *act* is a distinct, and a somewhat important,

doing. Action is applied to what is more general and continuous. We say "a kind *act*," "a brave *act*." On the other hand, "Mr. Roosevelt is a man of *action*;" "Life is *action*." Act is synonymous with deed; action, with motion.

3. **Allow, permit.** "To *allow* consents tacitly; to *permit* consents formally." An action for which permission need not be asked is allowed; to permit implies the granting of a request. "Permit is positive; it signifies to grant leave."

"I have obtained his *permission* to make these conversations public." In America every one is *allowed* to follow the dictates of his own conscience.

Carefully study *concede, tolerate.*

4. **Affect, effect.** To act upon a thing in such a way as to modify it is to *affect* it; as, "Our mental states are affected by our sensible surroundings." To *effect* is to bring to pass; to execute; to accomplish; to achieve; as, "They sailed away without effecting their purpose." *Effect,* as a noun, denotes the result of action; as, "What was the effect of his fiery appeal?"

Study *affect* (=to like), and the corresponding noun *affectation.*

5. **Amateur, novice.** *Amateur* is frequently used in the sense of *novice.* One who practises an art, not as a profession nor as a means of livelihood, but solely for the love of it, is an amateur. A novice is a beginner in any pursuit—one yet in the rudiments. An amateur may be a master in his art; a novice lacks the experience essential to skill.

Study *tyro,* a synonym of *novice.*

6. **Ancient, antique, antiquated, obsolete.** *Ancient* is old, as opposed to modern. Homer and Plato were ancient authors; Babylon was an ancient city. What is *antique* is in the *style* of the ancients. An antique temple may be modern, but is fashioned after an ancient model or style of architecture. We speak of an antique coin, or cup, or costume; and of ancient laws and customs. That which by lapse of time has passed out of fashion or use, is *antiquated*. The reaping machines of fifty years ago have become antiquated. *Obsolete* expresses that of which the life or force has fallen into disuse. It is applied to words, documents, customs, and observances, but never to persons, and rarely to material things.

Study *primal, primeval, primordial.*

7. **Apprehend, comprehend.** These words are improperly interchanged. To *apprehend* a truth is to have an intelligent notion of it; as, Man may apprehend the divine law, but can not comprehend it. To understand a truth or a principle in all its compass is to *comprehend* it. We apprehend the mysteries of religion, and walk by faith. If we comprehended them we would walk by the sole light of reason. There are many who apprehend, but can not comprehend, the nature of electricity. To apprehend is generally sufficient for practical purposes.

Study *prescience, omniscience.*

8. **Apparent, obvious.** These are not always synonymous. That which is *obvious* is evident, certain, real. What is *apparent* may be just the reverse of real; as, "A paradox is an apparent contradiction of terms," "The Duke of York is the heir apparent to the English throne."

Look up the etymology of *obvious.*

9. **Acceptance, acceptation.** *Acceptance* expresses the receiving of something; as, "His acceptance of the gift was graceful." *Acceptation* expresses the meaning with which a word or phrase is understood, or generally received; as, "We must use the word in its usual acceptation."

In what sense does each of these words contain the idea *to take?*

10. **Acquire, obtain.** What is *acquired* is gotten by one's own efforts; what is *obtained* may be gotten by the efforts of others. What one acquires comes gradually to him in consequence of the regular exercise of his abilities. Hence, knowledge, honor, reputation are acquired. One obtains what he inherits. A fortune that is amassed as the result of many years of labor is acquired. "What is acquired is solid, and produces lasting benefit; what is obtained may often be injurious to one's health, one's interest, or one's morals."

Study *attain.*

11. **Abridge, abbreviate.** To *abridge* is to shorten by condensing or compressing; to *abbreviate* is to shorten by cutting off, or curtailing. Written words are abbreviated by clipping them; voluminous treatises are abridged by reducing the same matter to smaller compass; *o'er* for over; *ne'er* for never; *can't* for can not, and so on, are not abbreviated forms of their originals, but contracted forms.

Use *curtail* in an original sentence.

12. **Access, accession.** We have *access* to a library, to a city directory, to a magistrate. The college faculty has received a valuable *accession* in the person of Pro-

fessor B., just elected to the chair of mathematics. The library has received a large *accession* of books. The Sultan celebrated his *accession* to the throne.

Study the etymology of these words. Study *accede*.

13. **At last, at length.** What is done *at last* is brought about after many delays, difficulties, or accidents; *i. e.*, it is accomplished in spite of these.

What is done *at length* is brought about after a long continuance of time. The great Salt Lake temple was forty years in building; it was at length completed. After surmounting many apparently insuperable obstacles, the first transcontinental railway was at last finished. What takes a long time to be done, is accomplished *at length;* what is done in the face of difficulties is accomplished *at last*.

14. **Abettor, accomplice.** An *abettor* is one who in any way promotes the execution of an evil scheme without taking a direct part in it. An *accomplice* is the prime mover in an iniquitous scheme, the one who devises the plans for the execution of a crime. An abettor may merely connive at the commission of a crime; an accomplice is the leading spirit in its commission.

Study *accessory*.

15. **Active, agile, alert, lively.** One who is given to action, or is fond of action, is *active*. "An active demand for wheat" is a current phrase of the business world. One who is nimble or quick in movement is *agile*. One who is watchful and ready to act is *alert*. "On the alert" =on the lookout. One who is full of life, animated, is *lively*. We speak of "a lively child," "a lively faith," "a lively interest."

Use in a sentence the noun form of *agile*.

16. **Accede, assent, acquiesce.** We *accede* to another's wish, or practical proposal; we *assent* to the truth of a proposition, to the objective point of an argument. *Acquiesce* is closely akin to assent, but is less positive and active. It means to concur less heartily than is implied in *assent*. It means hardly more than to forbear opposition.

"We can not assent to a proposition without some intelligent apprehension of it."—*Newman.*

"Take the place and attitude that belong to you and all men acquiesce."—*Emerson.*

"The proprietors acceded to the request of their employees."

17. **Bravery, courage, fortitude.** *Bravery* is more a matter of temper, of instinct, than of reason or insight. *Courage* is the result of reflection and conscience. There is little merit in being brave; there is much in being courageous. Courage is always cool and collected, and moves in the light. Bravery is liable to degenerate into mere temerity. *Fortitude* is resolute endurance; bearing pain or adversity without complaining, depression, or despondency. "It takes courage to storm a battery, fortitude to stand still under an enemy's fire." "Jesus bore His awful sufferings with the utmost fortitude."

Study *valor, intrepidity.*

18. **Bough, branch.** A *branch* is one of the arms of a tree regarded simply in its ramifications; a *bough* is a *branch* thought of as invested with leaves, or with leaves and blossoms, or with leaves and fruit. When we think of the arms of a tree as constituent parts of a tree, we properly speak of them as branches; when we are thinking of them as luxuriant with leaves, etc., we call them

boughs. The bough is sometimes severed from the tree and used for festive decoration. The fruitful bough, rich with the foliage of summer and the fruit of autumn, becomes in winter a leafless branch.

"Joseph is a fruitful *bough*."—Gen. 49:22.

19. **Bring, fetch.** *Bring* is only to convey to; as, "The farmer *brings* potatoes to market." *Fetch* is to *go* and bring. One who brings passes over the ground in only one direction; one who fetches passes over the ground in both directions; *i. e.,* makes a "round trip," so to speak. The phrase "Go and bring" is the equivalent of *fetch.*

20. **Bestow, confer.** Both these verbs express the idea of giving. *Bestow* is said of things given between persons in private life; *confer,* of things given from persons in authority to those below them in rank. Princes confer honors, privileges, dignities. One neighbor bestows favors upon another. We bestow charity, kindness, favors, pains, etc.

"The whole affair is so petty that I shall not *bestow* another thought upon the subject."

"Henry VIII. *conferred* upon Wolsey the highest honors."

Study *accord* and *grant.*

21. **Bleach, blanch, whiten.** Of these *whiten* is the generic term. It is to make white either by internal changes or by the application of an external coloring. If a thing is made white by an alteration of its inherent and natural coloring matter, it is said to be *blanched.* Growing plants deprived of light become blanched. If the whitening is effected by the destruction of the coloring matter of the body, either by the action of light

and air or by the application of some acid, the object is said to be *bleached*.

Discriminate *pale, pallid, wan.*

22. **Barbarous, barbaric.** *Barbarous* refers to the cruelty, the inhumanity, the brutality, the grossness of uncivilized peoples. *Barbaric* refers to the rude splendor, the crude taste, the uncultured display of wealth, peculiar to a barbarous people. We speak of barbarous practises, conduct, etc.; but of barbaric splendor, wealth, pomp, and so on.

Find the etymological source of *barbarous.*

23. **Contagion, infection.** Both words imply the communication of something bad. The former operates by mutual contact; the latter, by means other than contact. All diseases of the skin, as the measles, smallpox, etc., are contagious. Some fevers, diphtheria, etc., are infectious. It is proper to say that usage warrants us in using contagious for infectious occasionally, for the sake of variety. Metaphorically we say, Bad manners are contagious, bad principles infectious.

Look up the etymology of *contagious.*

Study *contiguous, tactile.*

24. **Covetous, avaricious, parsimonious.** An inordinate desire for wealth, by whatever means it may be acquired, is *avarice;* the illicit desire to appropriate the wealth of others is *covetousness.* "The avaricious are eager to get, in order to heap up; they can not bear to part with their wealth; the covetous are eager to obtain money, but not so desirous to retain it." A covetous man may even be a spendthrift. The avaricious spend as little as possible. The *parsimonious* man is frugal to

excess; his closeness borders upon niggardliness. He is rigorously economical in little matters; he systematically curtails trivial expenses. It is by parsimony that the poor grow rich. Penuriousness is aggravated parsimony.

25. **Contemptible, despicable.** The ideas expressed by these words differ in degree only. The latter is the more intensive. What is worthless or weak is *contemptible;* what is actively bad or immoral is *despicable.* We look slightingly upon that which we contemn, as unworthy of serious attention. Affectation, pedantry, and vanity are contemptible; positive vice, malice, treachery, and the like are despicable. Because David was small of stature, his antagonist, Goliath, regarded him with contempt. Because of its want of numerical force, an army may seem contemptible to its enemy.

Can you think of any words synonymous with these?

26. **Continual, continuous, perpetual.** What is *continual* recurs often; what is *continuous* goes on without break or interruption. *Perpetual* means the same as continuous with the additional idea of never stopping; as, "The planets revolve *perpetually,*" "The tides rise and ebb *perpetually.*" If it rained at intervals during the whole of yesterday, we say, "It rained continually yesterday." If the downpour was unbroken, we say, "It rained continuously yesterday." "Yet . . . I will avenge her, lest by her *continual* coming she weary me." Luke 18:5. "Carlyle's 'Frederick the Great' is rather a bundle of lively episodes than a *continuous* narrative." —*Lowell.*

Discriminate *eternal* and *everlasting.*

27. **Confute, refute.** An argument is *confuted* when it is neutralized, reduced to an absurdity, or annihilated by a counter argument. What is proved to be untrue in the *case—i. e., relatively* untrue—is *refuted.* What is personally alleged against one, as charges, slanders, calumnies, etc., is refuted if proved to be false. Confutation destroys, boils down to nothing, so to speak; refutation does not destroy or alter the charge, but simply invalidates its *application* in the matter in hand. In short, opinions, paradoxes, and arguments are confuted; while assertions, charges, insinuations, calumnies, etc., are refuted.

28. **Ceremonial, ceremonious.** These words were formerly the same in meaning. *Ceremonial* now means pertaining to public ceremony, or *forms* of public worship; ritualistic. As a noun it means the system of rules and rites that characterize public worship; as, "The *ceremonial* of the Anglican Church is more complex than that of any other Protestant church." *Ceremonious* refers to the forms of social demeanor, or etiquette. A ceremonious person is one who is over-exact, punctilious, in the forms of social behavior. "Too ceremonious in testifying their allegiance."—*Raleigh.*

Study *decorous, deferential, obsequious.*

29. **Chasteness, chastity.** *Chasteness* is freedom from mere gaudiness and affectation in oral or written speech, and freedom from what is meretricious in art. "His diction [Irving's] is distinguished for its harmony and *chasteness.*" The more common word, *chastity,* signifies sexual purity; moral cleanness; continence. "The most beautiful of all the virtues—*chastity.*"

30. **Commence, begin.** *Commence* is of classical derivation; *begin* is pure Saxon. Being the simpler and stronger, *begin* is decidedly preferable. For variety's sake, *commence* may be used occasionally in referring to actions subject to the human will; but in referring to actions or movements beyond the sphere of human volition, we must invariably use begin; as, "Summer *begins* in June," "Next August will *begin* on a Thursday."

31. **Custom, habit.** We speak of national *customs,* and of a man of indolent *habits.* What the majority does becomes a custom; what the individual does [generally] becomes a habit. Indulgence in tobacco, wine, etc., are bad habits. To abstain from the use of flesh meats on certain days is a custom among Catholics. Customs may beget habits; for instance, the custom of giving soldiers in the field a daily allowance of spirits is likely to result in the drinking habit on the part of the individual soldier. Custom implies volition and consciousness; habit tends to become involuntary and automatic.

Study *practise* (noun) and *vogue.*

32. **Crime, sin, vice.** *Crime* implies primarily an infraction of civil law; *sin* of divine law. *Vice* is an offense against morality. Sin has reference to the relation between God and man; vice refers to the relation between man and man. An act is sinful because it is contrary to the law of God; it is vicious because it is injurious to the individual subject and to society. A vicious act is necessarily a sinful act. With very few exceptions criminal acts are likewise sinful. When a civil statute is in conflict with the divine law, the true Christian

must break the civil statute *in order* that he may not break the divine law and thus commit sin. He then commits a crime in the eyes of the civil authorities, but he commits no sin; in fact he committed the crime *that* he might not sin. A crime committed from any other motive is sin. The use of narcotics, morphine, alcoholics, as well as gambling and secret abuse, is a vice.

Look up the etymology of *transgression, iniquity, wickedness.*

33. **Conquer, vanquish, subdue, overcome.** Persons and things are *conquered, subdued,* or *overcome;* but *persons* only are *vanquished.* To *conquer* means distinctively to gain control or possession of. Prisoners of war are conquered but not necessarily subdued. A country may be conquered by sheer force but its people may not be subdued. To subdue a people is to check or destroy all tendency to, or desire for, further resistance. Spain often conquered colonists that she never succeeded in subduing. We speak of vanquishing a foe when we think of our compelling him to *yield,* to "give in." William the Norman succeeded in conquering the English after he had vanquished their leader, Harold. It was twelve years after he had conquered the English before he succeeded in subduing them. How long it took the English to subdue the Boers after they had practically conquered them and vanquished a number of their leaders. The distinct idea of *overcome* is to get the mastery of. What we overcome we control instead of its controlling us. Evil tendencies of the heart and flesh may be overcome long before they are subdued. We get the mastery over them and hold them in subjection, while they still clamor for indulgence. Only death can subdue

some of them. Lusts that have been starved out of existence are not only overcome but subdued.

Study *quell, surmount.*

34. **Disability, inability.** *Disability* is lack of technical, legal, or conventional power to act. A minor can not become a party to a contract because of a legal disability under which he labors. Because of some personal relation which a judge sustains toward a matter to be adjudicated, he is legally disqualified to act in his official capacity during such adjudication. He is technically *disabled. Inability* implies a lack of *capability;* disability does not imply such lack, but a lack of some *formal qualification..* It is a disability, not an inability, that would bar Mr. Carl Schurz from the presidential office.

35. **Distinguish, discriminate.** We *distinguish* with the eye, the sense of vision; we *discriminate* with the judgment or understanding. We distinguish when we point out broad, obvious differences; we discriminate when we draw or point out minute, nice, delicate differences. We distinguish for practical purposes; we discriminate not only for practical, but for speculative, purposes. We distinguish things; we discriminate ideas and principles. Hence a mind that detects delicate shades of unlikeness is a "discriminating mind." It would be difficult to discriminate between a *discriminating* mind and a subtile mind.

Study *differentiate.*

36. **Defend, protect.** To *defend* is an active, to *protect* is a passive term. "We defend those who are attacked; we protect those who are liable to be attacked." Swords and muskets are arms of defense; helmets and shields

are means of protection. Walls and fortifications are built for purposes of protection. A garrison fires upon the enemy in order to defend the town.

Look up the etymology of these words.

37. **Discretion, prudence.** By *prudence* we foresee probabilities, and act accordingly. Prudence reads the future; *discretion* judges the present. The discreet man uses most wisely the tangible realities with which he has to do *now;* the prudent man prepares for what is coming. To act with decorum on all occasions evinces discretion; to successfully meet probable contingencies evinces prudence. A discreet person does what is most fitting, most seemly. A prudent man is never taken off guard—never found napping. "A *prudent* man foreseeth the evil, and hideth himself." Prov. 27:12. "A good man showeth favor, and lendeth: he will guide his affairs with *discretion.*" Ps. 112:5.

Give several Bible examples of the use of *discreet.*

38. **Deadly, deathly, mortal.** *Deadly* is applied to that which produces death; *deathly,* to what resembles death; *mortal,* to what terminates in, or is subject to, death. There may be remedies to counteract what is deadly. What is mortal can not be cured. We say, "a deadly poison," "a mortal wound," "A deathly pallor came over the patient's face." I may add that what is *fatal* results irretrievably in death; as, a fatal mistake, a fatal step, a fatal fall.

Study the terms *fatalism* and *fatalist.*

39. **Decided, decisive.** Webster discriminates these words thus: "We call a thing *decisive* when it has the power of deciding; as, a *decisive* battle; we speak of it

as *decided* when it is so fully settled as to leave no room for doubt; as, a *decided* preference, a *decided* aversion. Hence a *decided* victory is one about which there is no question; a *decisive* victory is one which ends the contest. *Decisive* is applied only to things; as, a *decisive* sentence, a *decisive* decree, a *decisive* judgment. *Decided* is applied equally to persons and things."

40. **Definite, definitive.** *Definitive* is not applicable, as *definite* is, to material objects. A material form or phenomenon is *definite* when it presents itself to the eye in sharp outlines of separation from other objects. A *definite* idea is one so clearly defined, so sharply outlined, that it can not be mistaken for, or confounded with, any other idea. *Definitive* regards what is final, ultimate, decisive; as, "The decision handed down by the court yesterday is *definitive*;" that is, there can be no appeal from it: it is final, unconditional. I can not speak definitely on a matter when my knowledge of it is not clear and exact. I can not speak definitely upon it when I can not say what will be conclusive and final upon it. An official ultimatum should be definite, and, of course, would not be an ultimatum if it were not definitive. A definite scheme is so clear and sharply marked out that it is easily understood; a definitive scheme is one whose conditions are not subject to recall or modification. The Christian accepts as definitive what God says upon á subject.

Study the etymology of these words.

41. **Disbelief, unbelief.** The mere absence of belief is *unbelief;* an unwillingness or refusal to believe is *disbelief.* I express my unbelief in what I am willing to

believe as soon as I am convinced that it is true. I express my disbelief in what I am persuaded is false. I disbelieve the statement of a perjured man. "Unbelief is open to conviction; disbelief is already convinced of the falseness of what it does not believe." Christians disbelieve the claims of Mohammed.

Discriminate the terms *atheism* and *skepticism*.

42. **Deceit, deception.** The individual instances or acts of one who deceives are *deceptions*. Hence we speak of an "act of deception." *Deceit* is used more in reference to the conscious *habit* of deceiving, or the *disposition* to deceive. We say of one so disposed that he is *deceitful*. Deception is used more in respect of the one deceived; deceit with regard to the deceiver. Deception is therefore applicable to cases in which the guilt of deceit has no part; as, an optical deception. Deceit always implies intention.

Use *deceitful* and *deceptive* in such a way as will illustrate their difference.

43. **Deity, divinity.** *Deity* regards God as an agent or person; divinity signifies the essence or nature of God. Divinity is an attribute of Deity, or of God. When we speak of the divinity of Christ, we have regard to His nature, meaning that He was of the essence of God. Hence we speak of the attributes of the Deity, not of the divinity.

How does *deism* differ from *theism*?

44. **Discern, perceive.** To *perceive* is that simple act of the eye by which a more or less distant object is brought to make an impression on the mind; to *discern* expresses that act of the eye by virtue of which one is

enabled to single out a particular object from among many others and consider it apart from the rest. We perceive trees or houses or persons at a distance; we discern an apple tree among many other sorts of fruit trees. "Perceiving has reference to objects of the same sort; discerning, to one among many of a different sort from itself. The same distinction holds good in the abstract sense of the two words." After some reflection, we are able to see the truth of a proposition. A discriminating mind can discern truth though it be mixed with error. It requires a discerning mind to select the wheat from the chaff of discourse—to pounce upon what is vital.

"The word of God is quick, and powerful, . . . and is a *discerner* of the thoughts and intents of the heart." Heb. 4:12.

Study *descry*.

45. **Defective, faulty.** What is lacking in some respect is *defective;* what has something that it should not have is *faulty.* A defect must be supplied; a fault must be corrected. The absence of something right is a defect; the presence of something wrong is a fault. What is imperfectly done is defective; what is bunglingly done is faulty. A *blemish* may be neither a defect nor a fault, but merely an accidental mark that renders the object less sightly than it would otherwise be. It is always on the surface. It spoils the appearance—the looks—of that on which it is found. A *flaw* is something unsound in what is otherwise genuine. A flaw detracts from the value—or at least from the commercial value—of a thing. A blind eye in a horse is primarily a flaw; it makes the horse less salable. In so far as it

impairs the "looks" of the horse, it is a blemish. In so far as it impairs his normal vision, it is a defect. Metaphorically we speak of a flaw in a document; so of "a flaw in an indictment."

Does the etymology of *defective* suggest its distinctive meaning?

46. **Difficulty, obstacle.** A *difficulty* perplexes, an *obstacle* deters or retards us. Difficulties commonly arise out of the inherent nature and character of the matter in hand; obstacles arise from extraneous causes. When leaving Egypt, the Hebrews regarded the Red Sea as an insuperable obstacle. The scarcity of water in the desert through which they marched was one of the many difficulties they met. Obstacles are either removed or surmounted; difficulties are met and solved, or disposed of by skill, patience, and perseverance.

Study the etymology of *obstacle;* the etymology of *impediment.*

47. **Effect, accomplish, achieve.** To *effect* is to carry out a design, scheme, or project; to *accomplish* is to complete, to bring to natural close. "He works hard but accomplishes nothing." *Achieve* implies a breaking through difficulties.

"What He [God] decreed He *effected.*"—*Milton.*

The successful man *accomplishes* whatever he undertakes.

It took years for the colonists to *achieve* their independence.

Study *compass* (as a verb); embody it in a sentence.

48. **Efficient, effective.** *Effective* has regard to what has power to produce a given effect; *efficient* has regard

to what actually does produce a given effect. We judge of what is effective from its *appearance;* we judge of what is efficient from what it *does.* An efficient body of police is one that has proved its ability to prevent crime and protect property; an effective police force is one that, judging from its numbers and other external circumstances, has the power to produce the same effect. An army just organized might be thought effective, but prove inefficient when brought into action.

Observe further: That is *efficacious* which possesses the properties necessary to produce a certain effect; that is *effectual* which has already produced a given effect. An *efficacious* medicine is one that is known to possess the power to effect a cure; an *effectual* medicine is one known to have produced a cure. The master's rod, though not used, may prove *efficacious* in preserving order and quiet in the schoolroom. It may have been proved *effectual* by actual use.

"The *effectual* fervent prayer of a righteous man availeth much." James 5: 16.

49. **Enough, sufficient.** We have *enough* when our desires are satisfied; we have *sufficient* when our needs are met. Some persons, though they have more than sufficient, never have enough. A man may have enough money for himself and his family, and not sufficient to help his indigent neighbor. There are youth who get enough knowledge and training long before they have sufficient.

In what respect does *ample* differ from these words?

50. **Enormity, enormousness.** *Enormousness* qualifies a material object as being immense in magnitude; as, the

enormousness of our national wealth, the *enormousness* of our railway mileage. *Enormity* qualifies wrong-doing as being heinous, atrocious, monstrous; as, the *enormity* of the crimes committed in the name of religion; the *enormity* of the outrages committed by the victorious soldiers.

Does the etymology of these words furnish a clue to their present meaning?

51. **Evidence, testimony.** *Evidence* is that which actually *proves* something; *testimony* is that which is *intended* to prove something. The evidence is only that part of the testimony which avails for the purpose in hand. There may be much testimony with but little evidence.

How does *testimonial* differ from *testimony?*

52. **Entire, complete.** Whatever lacks nothing that it was intended to have, is *entire;* whatever lacks nothing it normally can have, is *complete.* An *entire* work on Roman history consists of a certain number of volumes; a *complete* history of Rome is an absolutely exhaustive history of Rome. "A complete work contains everything that can be said on the subject of which it treats." A history without maps is not complete; but if no leaves are missing it is entire. A complete victory lacks in no element of thoroughness. What is entire is an unbroken integer.

53. **Egoism, egotism.** *Egotism* is the acting out of self-conceit or self-importance, in words or conduct; speaking or writing overmuch of one's self; self-praise; self-exaltation. Egoism is the disposition to concentrate one's thoughts and feelings upon one's self; "the habit

of regarding one's self as the center of every interest." Egoism is opposed to altruism. It is celf-centered, and lacks outward exhibition; egotism always parades its own importance and doings.

Look up the psychological import of *egoism.* Study *altruism.*

54. **Emigrant, immigrant.** *Emigrants* are those who leave a country to find homes in another; *immigrants* are those who come into a country with a view to settling there.

Study these words etymologically. Use in a sentence the word *migratory.*

55. **Equivocal, ambiguous.** A sentence that contains one general meaning, and yet contains a word or words which may be taken in two different senses, or phrases or clauses which may be regarded as qualifying either one of two or more terms of the sentence, is called an *ambiguous* sentence. A *part* of the meaning intended is doubtful, uncertain. A sentence is *equivocal* when, taken as a *whole*, it expresses each of two thoughts with equal propriety and clearness. What is ambiguous is a mere blunder of language; what is equivocal is generally intended to deceive, though it may sometimes result from mere inadvertence. The idea of misleading or deceiving is always implied by the verb *equivocate.*

Study *evade* and *prevaricate.*

56. **Excite, incite.** To *excite* is to arouse feelings that were dormant or calm; to *incite* is to urge forward into acts corresponding to the feelings that have been awakened.

In the study of what science or sciences would you expect to meet the long word *excitation?*

57. **Ethnography, ethnology.** *Ethnography* seeks merely to describe and classify the races of mankind. *Ethnology,* the science of races, explains the mental and physical differences of the several races; explains the organic laws that give rise to these differences, and attempts to deduce from such laws rules for the guidance of the affairs of social and national existence.

The two sciences correspond, in a sense, to the science of geography and of geology respectively.

Note the etymological difference of the two words.

58. **Enemy, foe.** An *enemy* is one who, actuated by unfriendly feelings, attempts or at least desires the injury of another. An enemy is open or secret, personal or collective. The term is sometimes employed impersonally; as, an enemy to truth, an enemy to progress, and so on. A *foe* is one whose hatred is more specific and aggressive than that of an enemy. A foe is always personal.

Study *adversary, antagonist, opponent.*

59. **Equable, equitable.** These words are not synonymous with each other. They are sometimes confounded because of their resemblance in form. *Equable* expresses the idea of evenness or uniformity of motion, intensity, temperature, temper, and the like. The temperature of California is throughout the year more equable than is that of the other states. The motion of the planets is absolutely equable. Longfellow's equable temper helped to win him friends. What is *equitable* is fair, just, impartial; as, an *equitable* decision, an *equitable* distribution of property.

Use in a sentence the noun corresponding to *equitable*.

60. **Exceptional, exceptionable.** There is danger of confounding these words so unlike in meaning. What is *exceptional* is unusual or uncommon; as, Tom is making exceptional progress in his studies. He ranks *exceptionally* high in his classes. What is *exceptionable* is objectionable or questionable; liable to exception. "His conduct was *exceptionable*" means that he behaved in a manner objectionable.

61. **Eternal, everlasting.** *Everlasting* now means without end; *eternal,* without beginning or end. They are not, as formerly, interchangeable. The past eternity of God would not now be designated by the word *everlasting.* God has eternal life. Man may have, through Christ, everlasting life. Every *now* is a transition between two eternities.

62. **Exuberant, luxuriant.** *Luxuriant* signifies a flourishing, unrestrained growth; while *exuberant* denotes a copious or even an excessive production. Luxuriant is always employed in a favorable sense. Exuberant sometimes denotes that kind of abundance which needs to be pruned down or restrained. A luxuriant imagination is an invaluable gift to the poet, but an exuberant imagination might run away with his reason. Exuberant joy or exuberant grief needs to be restrained. In this sense luxuriant is inadmissible.

63. **Falseness, falsity.** *Falsity* is inapplicable to persons; it has relation only to statements, propositions, and arguments. We speak of the falsity of a proposition, of a syllogism, of a doctrine, and so on. *Falseness,* on the contrary, is used only in respect of personal character;

as, the falseness of B.'s character, or the falseness of C.'s heart.

What is a *fallacy?*

64. **Faith, belief, trust.** It has been said that *belief* exists; *faith* acts. Belief is a passive faith, and faith is an active belief. Not belief, but faith, will "remove mountains." Belief is merely intellectual assent to a doctrine, or to a proposition, or to the existence of Deity; it is a precondition to faith. Belief is confined to the understanding; faith goes farther and moves the will. "Faith which works" is the only genuine faith. "The devils *believe* and tremble," says the apostle James. "The true test of its [faith's] merit and virtue is, not assenting to anything against our *reason,* but against our *prejudices* or *interests.*" One who holds to a doctrine in theory only has belief in the doctrine, but one who goes further and holds to it in practise as well, has faith in that doctrine. Trust is that aspect of faith which has to do primarily with the feelings or the affections. The distinctive import of trust is a *feeling of safety, of security;* a sense that "God is my refuge, in Him will I trust." It is the sweet, rest-giving element of faith. Trust confides in, and rests on, the promises of God. Trust is always calm, serene, composed. Trust simply can not worry and fret. Trust is "quietness and assurance forever." Faith is virtually the vital union of belief and trust. This union (faith) asserts itself in aggressive *doing.* Belief that ignores reason is mere *credulity.*

Study the etymology of *faith, infidel, perfidy.*

65. **Feign, pretend.** Both these words signify to mislead; to convey a false impression. Feigning commonly

misleads the senses—the eye especially; pretense misleads the understanding. We feign by false *appearances,* by outward *demeanor* and *conduct.* We feign only what pertains to ourselves. The object of feigning is to avoid the performance of a disagreeable duty or to gain an unearned good. Thus we may feign sickness, or friendship, or indifference, or ignorance (specific), etc. "Ulysses *feigned* madness in order to escape going to the Trojan war." We *pretend,* not by conduct or manner, but by what we *say.* We seek to deceive the judgment by false assertions, by a misrepresentation of facts. We may pretend in matters pertaining to others as well as in those pertaining to ourselves. Thus I may pretend to have been presented to the Pope or to a king, or to have completed a university course, or to be intimately acquainted with some famous man, and thus like. The meaning of *dissemble* is interesting, inasmuch as it is always the feigned concealment of what really exists in one's character or feeling. If one is jealous and pretends *not* to be, he dissembles. One feigns to be what he is not; he dissembles in order to appear not to be what he *is.*

What is the noun corresponding to *dissemble?* Study the word *simulation.*

66. **Foreigner, alien.** A *foreigner* is a native of another country; an *alien* is a foreigner who has not been naturalized, or has not the privileges of a citizen of the country in which he resides. We have thousands of foreign citizens who are not aliens, and a few residents who are aliens and therefore not citizens.

Study *expatriate.*

67. **Foretell, predict.** We *foretell* by calculation, or on the ground of experience and knowledge. Hence we foretell with some degree of certainty. Our *predictions* are based mostly on conjecture. Eclipses are foretold by astronomers; evil or good fortune is predicted by astrologers and gypsies. Predict is employed only of persons, while foretell is used also of impersonal indicators; as, The mercury (barometer) foretells rain.

Study *prognosticate, divine* (verb).

68. **Forefathers, ancestors.** Our *forefathers* includes our parents; our *ancestors* excludes them. It is said that ancestors is used in a sense to imply some dignity of birth. We are the children of our forefathers; the posterity of our ancestors.

69. **Genius, talent.** *Genius* denotes the highest order of human mentality. It is essentially original and independent in its operations. It is a strong inborn bent to some occupation in which the creative faculty, or the imagination in its highest manifestations, is largely employed. Genius originates, creates, and makes new combinations. Talent imitates faithfully; copies correctly; evolves, applies, and executes skilfully. By virtue of its inherent force, genius is measurably independent of rules, *i. e.*, of their specific recognition. It recognizes and applies them intuitively, as it were. Talent is special capacity for learning rules, and power to employ them wisely. Not only the foremost poets, painters, composers, etc., but also the greatest warriors, diplomats, and inventors, are called geniuses. Historians, mathematicians, linguists, statesmen, scientists, etc., are usually persons of talent.

"*Genius* of the highest kind implies an unusual intensity of the modifying power."—*Coleridge.*

"William Pitt was distinguished for his unrivaled *talent* for debate."—*Webster.*

70. **Grecian, Greek.** "*Greek* signifies belonging to Greece; and *Grecian,* relating to Greece." Homer was a Greek poet; Herodotus was a Greek historian. We study the Greek language. Architecture modeled after that of Greece, is Grecian. A temple in Greece is a Greek temple; one built upon the model of a Greek temple is a Grecian temple. What has come down to us from ancient Greece is Greek; what is made in imitation of the Greek is Grecian.

71. **Gain, win.** *Winning* is a particular kind of *gaining.* By attention to business we may gain a fortune; by chance, luck, or artifice we may win a fortune. Win generally implies competition; gain does not, as a rule. By our industry, faithfulness, and helpfulness we gain friends. We sometimes win friends without effort.

In what sense is a victory *won?* in what sense *gained?* in what sense *achieved?*

Use *acquire* in a sense in which the foregoing words would not be so apt.

72. **Haste, hurry.** *Haste* signifies speed of action. *Hurry* is haste with the added idea of confusion. Haste is an eager desire to accomplish quickly; hurry is the same desire accompanied with the fear of interruption. It is reasonable to be in haste, but never to be in a hurry. Napoleon said, "A man should never seem to be in a hurry."

The distinctive meaning of hurry is indicated by its derivation. Look it up.

73. **Healthy, healthful.** Though these terms are generally used interchangeably, their distinction should not be lost sight of. The former denotes a condition; the latter, a tendency. What is *healthy* is in good health; what is *healthful* tends to promote health. Healthful food makes healthy men. *Wholesome* is a good synonym with healthful.

Embody in a sentence the adjective *salubrious*.

74. **Heavenly, celestial.** Both words literally mean relating to heaven. The former is of Anglo-Saxon derivation, the latter of Latin. Hence celestial qualifies the supposed abode of heathen deities. To the Greek mind Olympus was the celestial abode of Jupiter. We speak of the celestial worlds in contrast to the terrestrial one on which we live. Heavenly is more properly employed to designate what pertains to the real heaven, the abode of the Creator. We speak of heavenly joys, heavenly bliss, heavenly music, and thus like. We are thinking of music, bliss, and so on, as being vastly more exalted and sublime than that of man, when we say "heavenly music," "heavenly bliss," etc. We are thinking of merely their *place*, when we say "celestial music," "celestial bliss," etc. Celestial has acquired more of a poetical turn than heavenly.

Contrast the words *supernal* and *infernal*.

75. **Idle, indolent.** An *idle* boy is not an altogether inactive boy, but one who occupies his time uselessly, or with frivolities. An *indolent* boy is strongly averse to effort of any kind. The idle boy plays when he should

work or apply himself to study. The indolent boy lounges about or sleeps when he should work or study. The idle boy lacks steadiness or purpose; the indolent lacks the disposition to exertion. Idleness is further used in the sense of forced inactivity; as, Men unable to get employment are idle. "Why stand ye here all the day *idle?* They say unto him, Because no man hath hired us." Matt. 20:6, 7. Idle originally meant unprofitable; as, "idle fields," that is, fields not under cultivation. *Lazy* usually expresses a slothful habit of body, to which physical effort is hateful. It is a stronger and more disparaging term than *indolent.*

Study *lethargy, apathy, lassitude.*

76. **Impossible, impracticable.** What is contrary to the laws of nature or to common sense is *impossible.* What merely baffles human skill or ingenuity is *impracticable.* It is impossible for a man, unaided by art, to fly; or to be in two places at the same time; or to grow figs on thistles. There is nothing impossible with God, as He is the Author of nature. The design of cutting a canal across the Isthmus of Panama is still regarded by many as impracticable. Yet there is a possibility of its being done sometime. The achievements of modern inventive science have rendered practicable many things that were before impracticable. Communication between Europe and America by wireless telegraphy is not yet practicable, but may become so.

"A thing is *impracticable* when it can not be accomplished by any human means at present possessed; a thing is *impossible* when the laws of nature forbid it."—*Webster.*

Study *feasible.*

77. **Ingenious, ingenuous.** These are not synonyms, but easily confounded by the inexperienced. The former signifies shrewd, clever, original; the latter, frank, open, candid, sincere. "He was a handsome youth, with an ingenuous face, and most engaging laugh."—*Dickens.*

Study the etymology of *frank* and *candid.*

78. **Incompatible, inconsistent, incongruous.** Things so disagreeing that they can not harmoniously exist together are *incompatible.* They are mutually exclusive; as, incompatible tempers, incompatible desires, or ambitions. Things that are not suited to each other, or do not harmonize, are *incongruous.* What is incongruous offends the taste. To wear at the same time an immaculate silk hat and cowhide boots would give the wearer an incongruous appearance. A combination of colors incongruous to us might not be so to oriental peoples. Conduct that is not in keeping, or in accord, with one's vows, profession, or the rules of his calling, is *inconsistent.* The following is from Webster: "Habitual levity of mind is *incongruous* with the profession of a clergyman; it is *inconsistent* with his ordination vows; it is *incompatible* with his permanent usefulness." The spirit of the worldling and the spirit of the saint can not dwell together in the same person, as they are not *compatible.* To profess one thing and practise the opposite is to be *inconsistent.* For one of the justices of the United States Supreme Court to represent a character in the acting of a rollicking farce would be *incongruous.*

Study *incoherent.*

79. **Intrude, obtrude.** To go where one is not desired, or has not been invited to go, or has no right to go, is

to *intrude*. To thrust one's self impertinently upon a company, or upon the attention of another, is to *obtrude* one's self. One who obtrudes is usually irrepressible in his remarks; one who intrudes may appear shy and taciturn. Obtrude is also used in an impersonal sense; as, Objects *obtrude* themselves upon our senses, whether we will or not.

The derivation of obtrude helps us understand its meaning.

80. **Incredible, incredulous.** These words are not synonyms. Consult the dictionary.

81. **Illusion, delusion.** What misleads the senses is an *illusion;* what misleads the understanding is a *delusion.* A false interpretation of an actual sense or impression is an illusion. A false belief, a false opinion, a false hope, are delusions. What seems to be a sense percept, but has no objective cause whatever, is an *hallucination.*

Study *phantom, specter.*

82. **Inquiring, inquisitive.** An *inquiring* mind is indispensable to successful research. An *inquisitive* temper is not an unmixed blessing. Inquisitive is of the same derivation as inquiring, but it has from usage an element of intrusiveness or prying.

Study Webster's third definition of *curious.* (International Dictionary.)

83. **Liberty, freedom.** Often used interchangeably, these words are distinct in some of their applications. Liberty implies a reference to former restraint or bondage; freedom signifies the simple unrepressed exercise of our powers. Liberty carries with it the idea of being no longer captive; freedom, that of nothing obstructing

the natural exercise of our powers. The slave, set at liberty, enjoys that freedom which his master has always enjoyed. Freedom sometimes means in an unrestrained manner; as, "They played, worked, and studied with *freedom*." Here *liberty* would not be admissible. "The *liberty* of the press is our great security for *freedom* of thought."—*Webster.*

84. **Lie, untruth.** What is positively false is a *lie;* what is negatively false is an *untruth.* "The former is intentional, the latter involuntary." To assert what one knows to be untrue, with an intention to deceive, is to tell a lie. One who is not aware of the falsity of what he asserts, tells an untruth. *Untruth* when used in the sense of *lie* is a *euphemism.*

85. **Little, small.** *Little* means *not much; small* means *not large. Little* when made to serve for *small* is a colloquialism. We should say a small boy, insect, flower, and the like. It has rained but *little* this summer.

Compare *little.*

86. **Malevolence, malice, malignity.** These words differ in degree. *Malevolence* expresses the idea of merely *wishing* ill to others; *malice* not only wishes ill, but is bent on *doing* ill, to another; *malignity* is intense and deep-seated malice. Malignity is not only bent on doing evil, but *delights* in it, loves it for its own sake. A malignant person is necessarily malevolent and malicious; but one may be malicious without being malignant. Malignant frequently qualifies an impersonal noun; as, a malignant fever, a malignant cancer, malignant diphtheria, malignant fear.

Contrast words *malign* and *benign.*

87. **Mercenary, venal.** One who is governed by a sordid love of gain is *mercenary.* Mercenary soldiers are soldiers who serve only from motives of gain; as, the Hessians who enlisted in the British army during the Revolutionary War. We speak also of mercenary motives, mercenary marriage; in short, of mercenary service of any kind. "Venal goes further, and supposes either an actual *purchase,* or a readiness to be purchased, which places a person or thing wholly in the power of the purchaser; as, a *venal* press." All who stand ready to be bribed, whether a judge, a legislator, or a voter, etc., are venal.

Study *venial,* which is not synonymous with venal, but resembles it in form.

88. **Marine, maritime, naval, nautical.** The first two words both mean belonging to the sea, but under different aspects; *marine,* to the sea in its natural aspect or state; as, marine deposits, marine plants, animals, etc.; *maritime,* to the sea as related to man, or as employed by man; as, a maritime people, or nation, maritime trade, maritime occupations. *Naval* expresses the idea of belonging to ships; as, a naval life, naval armament, the naval profession. That which pertains to the *art of navigation* is designated as *nautical;* as, nautical almanac, nautical instrument, nautical skill.

Study *naval* and *marine* as to their derivation.

89. **Motherly, maternal.** This pair of words is formed from corresponding roots in Saxon and Latin; the Latin word *maternal* being the more polite and cold, the Saxon *motherly* the more hearty and cordial. The Latin word is used to express the office, the Saxon the manner and

deportment. We speak of *maternal* duties, office, sphere, authority, and the like; of *motherly* care, tenderness, etc. A similar distinction holds between *paternal* and *fatherly*, *fraternal* and *brotherly*.

What is meant by the "medical fraternity"? the "legal fraternity"?

90. **Noted, notorious.** A *noted* man is well and widely known; distinguished, celebrated; as, a noted orator. *Noted* is always used in a favorable sense. A *notorious* person is one "generally known and talked of by the public"—generally in an unfavorable sense. We speak of a *notorious* thief, villain, bandit, brawler, and the like. What is universally known or believed to be true may be described as *notorious;* as, "That this is an age of rank commercialism is *notoriously* patent."

91. **New, novel.** *New* is opposed to what is old; *novel*, to what is known. New presupposes something previous; novel implies something strange and unexpected. There may be a new edition of Prescott's histories. A novel method of doing something is a method that has not hitherto been tried. A new book may exhibit an old subject in a novel manner. Novel is a species of new; it combines what is new with what is strange or unusual.

Study *unique* and *innovation*.

92. **Opposite, contrary.** Things that are *contrary* exclude each the other; things that are *opposite* complete each the other. Opposite things, points, or ideas can never come in conflict with each other, as they are mathematically *fixed*. Things contrary often come into collision. Virtue is contrary to vice, since it is unlike vice

in character, manifestation, motive, and practical effects. Virtue is opposite to vice, since, as a notion or concept, it stands over against vice, as the north pole stands over against the south pole. A thing or idea always *implies* its *opposite*. A thing or idea does not imply its *contrary*. "Opposite is static in its character; contrary is dynamic." *Contraries* quarrel when they meet; *opposites* are mathematically barred from meeting, and hence are eternally at peace.

Study the derivation of *opposite*.

93. **Obligation, duty**. *Duty* is what is *naturally* due from one to another. No man can be exempt from duties. An *obligation* arises from *circumstances*. It is a species of duty. If I orally or in writing guarantee the payment of a sum of money, I contract an obligation. "An obligation is what we bind ourselves to do independently of our natural duties." What are due, each to the other, of husband and wife, are *duties* because naturally implied in the marriage state.

Study *obligatory, duteous, dutiful*.

94. **Observance, observation**. One meaning of the verb *observe* is to keep or obey strictly; the other meaning is to consider or notice with care. Hence *observance*, corresponding to the first meaning, signifies the keeping or obeying of a rule or law, and thus fulfilling a civil, moral, or religious duty. We speak, therefore, of the observance of the Sabbath, of Lent, of rites, of Independence day, etc. *Observation*, corresponding to the second meaning, signifies the noticing, the perceiving, or the cognizing of an object through the senses;—most frequently through the eye. Observation is also used in

the sense of *remark*. "The Pharisees were curious in external *observances;* the astronomers are curious in celestial *observations*."—*Webster.*

What concrete noun do we have from *observe?*

95. **Ought, should.** Both these words express obligation; but *ought* is the more binding. *Should* usually expresses social obligation; *ought*, moral obligation. "We ought to obey God rather than man." We ought to honor our parents, to pay our debts, to speak the truth, and the like. We should be neat and clean, cheerful, and painstaking in the performance of every duty. *Ought* is derived from *owe;* hence its moral force.

Study and use *incumbent* (adjective).

96. **Peaceable, peaceful.** Those who are inclined to peace, who desire peace, who are averse to discord or fighting, are *peaceable. Peaceful* qualifies what is in a state of peace, or what has the appearance, the aspect, the character, of peace. A sleeping infant has a peaceful expression. We speak of a peaceful valley, a peaceful landscape, peaceful seclusion.

"Live peaceably with all men." Rom. 12:18.

97. **Posture, attitude.** Both words have regard to the visible disposition of the parts of the body. *Posture* relates to their position merely; *attitude* is posture with *expression* added. Attitude has for its object the setting forth and exhibiting of some emotion or sentiment; as, an attitude of wonder, of grief, of despair, of devotion, of admiration. Posture implies no expression. Hence we speak of a horizontal posture, an erect posture, a kneeling posture. We are always in some posture, but not always in an attitude.

How does an *attitude* differ from a *gesture?*

98. **Persuade, convince.** To *convince* is to satisfy the understanding with argument and evidence; to *persuade* is to move another's will to specific action or behavior. He *convinced* me that I was in error. No argument can *convince* an obstinately partisan man.

"Almost thou *persuadest* me to be a Christian." Acts 26: 28.

Study *convict, confirm.*

99. **Pride, vanity.** The *proud* man cherishes a feeling of self-sufficiency, self-satisfaction. Wrapped up in his own estimation, he is indifferent to the opinions of others. While overrating his own merit, the proud man underrates that of others. He arrogates to himself undue importance and worth. The *vain* man is greedy of admiration; he is inordinately fond of praise,—of praise which he knows he does not deserve. The proud man admires himself; the vain man courts the admiration of others. Pride is hateful; vanity is ridiculous and contemptible. There are persons too proud to stoop to anything so hollow as vanity. There is a species of pride of which we need not be ashamed,—*honest* pride, *honorable* pride. *Haughtiness* is pride strikingly exhibited through one's bearing and manner.

Note the derivation and distinctive meaning of *supercilious.*

100. **Present, introduce.** Those who strain to be fine often improperly use *present* for *introduce.* "A person is *presented* at court, and on official occasions to our President; but persons who are unknown to each other are *introduced* by a common acquaintance. And in these

introductions it is the younger that is introduced to the older; the lower to the higher in place or social position; the gentleman to the lady. A lady should say, as a rule, that Mr. Blank was introduced to her, not that she was introduced to Mr. Blank."—*Ayres.*

101. **Recollect, remember.** When an idea of a past experience recurs to the mind spontaneously, or with little exertion on our part, it is *remembered;* when it recurs as the result of special exertion, of purposed effort, it is *recollected.* Hence I say properly, "I *do* not remember," and "I *can* not recollect."

Any difference between *remembrances* and *reminiscences?*

102. **Reveal, divulge.** To *reveal* is to make known what is concealed; to *divulge* is to go further and spread abroad what has been revealed. I reveal a secret to a friend; he divulges the secret by making it generally known.

Produce a word synonymous with *reveal.*

103. **Revenge, avenge.** We *revenge* ourselves; we *avenge* others. To punish an injury done to another, is to avenge; to return evil for evil done to ourselves, is to revenge. *Vengeance* is the conjugate noun of both verbs. "To avenge is an act of retributive justice; to revenge is an act of passion."

Study *retaliate, reciprocate.*

104. **Remuneration, compensation, recompense.** A person is *remunerated* for his personal services done to the remunerator; he is *compensated* for losses incurred in behalf of the person making the compensation. Or one may, out of charity, give to a poor person, in compen-

sation for a loss which he had unfortunately sustained. Hence we say, "What can compensate for the loss of honor?" A railway company compensates its patrons for any injury sustained by the latter in a railway accident. A person is *recompensed* for long, assiduous, and specially meritorious service. This sense of recompense is happily exemplified in the following scripture: "For thou shalt be *recompensed* at the resurrection of the just." Luke 14: 14.

Study *requital, meed.*

105. **Safe, secure.** One who is simply out of danger is *safe;* one who is removed beyond the reach of danger is *secure.* Safe has regard to the past and the present; secure, to the future as well. Security further implies the *absence* of all *fear* of danger. Persons at sea are not safe during a storm; they are not secure from the dangers of the sea till they have reached the shore. It is the prerogative of a Christian to regard himself *safe* for time, and *secure* for eternity. So far as security is a feeling or *sense* of safety, it may itself become a danger; as, "While they slept *secure,* the enemy attacked the camp." We also speak of a dangerous individual being secure when he is imprisoned.

"No man can rationally account himself *secure* unless he could command all the chances of the world."

106. **Seem, appear.** "What *seems* is in the mind; what *appears* is external. Things appear as they present themselves to the eye; they seem as they are represented to the mind. Things appear good or bad, as far as we can judge by our senses. Things seem right or wrong as we determine by reflection. Perception and sensation

have to do with appearing; reflection and comparison, with seeming. When things are not what they appear, our senses are deceived; when things are not what they seem, our judgment is at fault."—*Graham.*

What is an *apparition?*

107. **Sensual, sensuous.** *Sensual* always implies moral wrong; *sensuous* is merely a term of science. All objects capable of affecting the senses are sensuous. By *sensuous* poetry is meant poetry replete with concrete terms, such as are fitted to suggest mental images and pictures. A sensual man is one devoted to the pleasures of sense, *i. e.,* to those of appetite and the fleshly lusts. It is closely related in meaning to *licentious.*

Study *sensible* with regard to its varied meanings.

108. **Site, situation.** A thing rests *on* a *site,* and stands *in* a *situation.* The site is merely the ground on which the building, or other object, is erected or reposes. The situation embraces all the local aspects and features in which a thing is placed.

It is a beautiful *situation* for a house, but the *site* is, for many reasons, undesirable.

"Beautiful for *situation*, the joy of the whole earth, is Mount Zion." Ps. 48:2.

109. **Silent, reticent, taciturn.** To be *silent* is simply to refrain from speaking. One is *reticent* when he is silent about a particular thing, or keeps back something that others have a right to know. A *taciturn* person is one whose temperament disposes to silence. Taciturnity is a matter of habit and of temper. *Taciturn* is the antithesis of *loquacious.* A very talkative person is sometimes silent but never taciturn.

"The cause of Addison's *taciturnity* was a natural diffidence in the company of strangers."—*Knox.*

Study *tacit.*

110. **Sneer, jeer, scoff.** "The verb *to sneer* implies to cast contempt indirectly or by covert expression. *To jeer* is stronger, and denotes the use of severe, sarcastic reflections. *To scoff* is stronger still, implying the use of insolent mockery and derision."—*Webster.*

"Knowing this first, that there shall come in the last days scoffers, walking after their own lusts." 2 Peter 3 : 3.

Produce two additional synonyms with *sneer,* etc.

111. **Stimulant, stimulus.** The former word is generally used to designate anything material taken into the system in order to stir and quicken the nerves; as all malt and spirituous liquors, tea, coffee, morphine, etc. The latter often expresses an abstract idea; as, "The hope of immortality is a powerful *stimulus* to Christian endeavor." Light is a stimulus [not stimulant] to the eye; air-waves, to the ear. *Stimulus* is akin in meaning to incentive. *Stimulate* is the conjugate verb to both these nouns.

112. **Talkative, loquacious, garrulous.** A *talkative* person is by nature disposed to talk much, but usually restrains himself somewhat. A *loquacious* person not only talks much but has also a very ready flow of words at command. Persons—especially women—of high animal spirits are, as a rule, given to loquacity. Loquacious persons seldom think below the surface of things. Persons who indulge in prosy, tiresome, long-drawn-out talk are *garrulous.* Illiterate old men are particularly prone to garrulity. Garrulous persons take delight in

imparting petty and valueless information. They are full of petty experiences, in detailing which they occupy the time of others. Feebleness of mind and egotism breed garrulity. The *loquacious* wear out our ears; the *garrulous,* our patience.

Study *palaver.*

113. **Temerity, rashness.** Though closely allied in sense, these words differ slightly in their use and application. *Temerity* is from the Latin, and is the more select and dignified; *rashness* is from the Anglo-Saxon, and is the more common and energetic. Temerity qualifies that *bent of mind* which disposes one to regard danger with undue contempt. Rashness qualifies the *act,* and implies that such act is prompted by mere impulse. Temerity is shown in hasty decisions, and in the conduct to which they lead. The habit of regarding danger with unreasonable contempt is *temerity.* Rushing into danger from thoughtlessness or excited feeling is *rashness.*

Can you think of some character in history who evinced *temerity?* Of one who acted *rashly?*

114. **Visitor, visitant.** A human guest is a *visitor;* a non-human guest—an angel, a specter, or pestilence—is a *visitant.*

How is *visitation* properly used?

115. **Worth, value.** The *worth* of anything is intrinsic; the *value* is accidental. Its value is determined by what it *does* for you, or by the price it will bring in the market. A thing's worth is its inherent merit or excellence, and is therefore permanent. Value is subject to change.

"The picture," he said, "was *valued* at one hundred dollars, but I think it is *worth* much more."

PART VII.

LEARNING BY DOING.

To be successful in public address or in writing for the public, one must first be in possession of a large stock of ideas and a correspondingly large stock of words. Artists express ideas in colors and in stone, inventors in machinery, and so on, but orators and writers must express their thoughts through the medium of words. All the great masters of our noble tongue are indefatigable students of the dictionary, of etymology, of works on synonyms, etc., but they all testify to the fact that the only safe, certain, and thorough method of mastering words, with their contained ideas, is in the conscientious, sympathetic reading of good literature. Dictionaries like ours did not exist at the time of Spenser, Shakespeare, and Milton. It was chiefly through reading and conversation that they acquired their wealth of words. "Words which we acquire directly from a good writer," says Professor Hart, "make a definite impression, and are retained in the memory. They have a vitality which is lost in the columns of a dictionary. When we repeat them in our writing we feel that we are safe, because we are acting under the best guidance."

Thomas Carlyle made himself a storehouse of words, by mastering the works of Samuel Taylor Coleridge and the masterpieces of the German writers, Goethe and

Schiller. Henry Drummond, in turn, stocked himself with words by absorbing Carlyle's and Ruskin's great books. But these and all other famous writers and orators were enthusiastic students of our English Bible. The pages of their books are luminous with Biblical allusions. No other literary work comprises so vast a store of the simple, strong, crisp, idiomatic words of the English language as does the Bible. It is here that we find the native purity and vigor of our tongue crystallized.

I can not do better than to insert here the testimony, as to the literary value of the Bible, of men who can speak as those having authority. Of John Ruskin, Professor Cook, of Yale University, writes:—

"John Ruskin is certainly the greatest master that the present century has produced of pure, idiomatic, vigorous, and eloquent English prose; and as the first volume of his 'Modern Painters,' perhaps his best work, appeared over forty years ago, when he was a recent 'Graduate of Oxford,' his style was perfectly formed while he was yet a young man. How was it formed? In one of his latest writings he has told us that in his childhood, as a part of his home education, his mother required him to commit to memory, and repeat to her, passages from the Bible. A similar custom, as some of us old men know, prevailed here in New England over half a century ago, and I hope that in some families it lingers still. Ruskin gives us the exact list, twenty-six in number, of the psalms and chapters which he thus learned by heart; and as the selection was in the main an excellent one, we need not seek further for the secret of his admirable diction and perfect command of English phraseology."

Referring to his knowledge of the Bible acquired by studying it under the guidance of his mother, Ruskin himself said:—

"And truly, though I have picked up the elements of a little further knowledge—in mathematics, meteorology, and the like,

in after life,—and owe not a little to the teaching of many people, this maternal installation of my mind in that property of chapters, I count very confidently the most precious, and, on the whole, the one *essential* part of all my education."

Macaulay wrote:—

"Bunyan's English was the English of the Bible. By constant perusal his mind was thoroughly steeped in Holy Scripture; he thought its thoughts, spoke its words, adopted its images. 'In no book,' writes Mr. Green, 'do we see more clearly the new imaginative force which had been given to the common life of Englishmen by their study of the Bible.' Those who desire to become, like him, masters of our grand mother tongue, and use it as an instrument for swaying the hearts, and elevating the souls, and instructing the minds of others, can take no better way to this end—to say nothing of its higher purposes—than to familiarize themselves, as he did, by constant perusal, with our English Bible."

The following is from Professor Bowen:—

"Leaving these general considerations, let us now come to particulars, and consider that aspect of the study of the *English* Bible which makes it interesting to the mere lover of literature. Look first at the diction, and weigh its merits regarded simply as a specimen of English prose. The opinion of scholars is unanimous that its excellence in this respect is unmatched; English literature has nothing equal to it, and is indeed largely indebted to conscious or unconscious imitation of it for many of its best and most characteristic qualities. The diction is remarkable for clearness, simplicity, and strength. It is as simple and natural as the prattle of children at play, yet never lacking in grace or dignity, or in variety and expressive force. Till our attention is called to it, we seldom notice what I may call the homeliness of the style, the selection of short and pithy Saxon turns of expression, and the wealth and strength of idiomatic phrase. One who should attempt to imitate it would easily lapse into vulgar and colloquial language, or, in striving to avoid this fault, into a certain primness and stiffness of

speech, which is even worse. In truth, it can not be imitated; to write such prose as that of our Common Version is now one of the lost arts. And I have not yet mentioned what is to many persons the most peculiar and most striking charm of the style; that is, its musical quality, the silvery ring of the sentences, and the rich and varied melody of its cadences whenever the sense comes to a close."

In his "History of Elizabethan Literature," Saintsbury writes:—

"But great as are Bacon and Raleigh, they can not approach, as writers of prose, the company of scholarly divines who produced—what is probably the greatest prose work in any language—the Authorized Version of the Bible in English."

"Intense study of the Bible," wrote Coleridge, "will keep any writer from being vulgar in point of style."

After President Lincoln had delivered his Gettysburg oration, he was asked to tell how he had mastered his inimitable diction. His answer was, in part, that he had for many years been an eager, untiring student of the English Bible.

I shall indicate below some of the Bible passages that should be studied especially for their native vigor, delightful simplicity, flowing rhythm, and noble eloquence.

The following requirements and directions are given: (1) To supply the student with matter for practise in composition; (2) to help him to a mastery of a generous vocabulary; (3) to incite the learner to vigorous, independent thinking. The teacher will find it easy to supplement the exercises here given.

1. Study from a good dictionary the following terms: *Paraphrase, amplify, abstract* (epitome), *phraseology, euphemism.*

2. Substitute other words or phrases for those in bold type. The **source** of the Nile was unknown for **ages.** The cruelty of the officer proved him to be a **pitiless** man. We have seldom heard more **encouraging** news. The rocks were covered with **prodigal verdure.** They were treated to a **sumptuous banquet.** In the field he was **ardent** and **intrepid**; elsewhere he was **effeminate** and **irresolute.**

3. Write a paraphrase of—

(*a*) Cowards die many times before their death;
The valiant never taste of death but once.
—*Shakespeare.*

(*b*) Condemn the fault, not the actor of it.—*Id.*

(*c*) He is well paid that is well satisfied.

Note.—The following rules on Paraphrasing are taken from "Lectures on Teaching," by Sir Joshua Fitch:—

RULE 1. Do not think you have to find an equivalent for every word. Read the whole passage and turn it over in the mind; keep in view its drift and general purport, and catch the *thought* in preference to the *language.* Then rewrite it so as to convey the *collective meaning* of the passage, not a mere *translation of its words.*

RULE 2. Do not be afraid of using the same word, if it is clearly the best, and an equivalent can not be found.

RULE 3. Be sure that the sentences are short and simple. Break up *long and involved* passages into *shorter ones,* and combine disconnected ones by the use of suitable conjunctions. Guard with special care against the vicious use of relatives, participles, and frequency of connective words such as "and," "so," "but," etc.

RULE 4. Never use two words where one would suffice to convey your thoughts; nor a *hard word* where an

easy one would convey your meaning. At the same time, in dealing with very concise writers it is not necessary to try to make the paraphrase as short as the original.

RULE 5. Do not translate all the metaphors, or all the poetry into prose. A slight change of figurative language is quite legitimate as long as the meaning is preserved.

RULE 6. Keep in mind the general style of the extract, and if it be *grave or playful,* maintain its character as far as you can. In conclusion, be careful that the result shall be a perfectly *readable* piece of English which would be *intelligible to those who had no knowledge of the original.*

4. From a physical geography or any other work on nature get all the information you can bearing upon the several kinds of clouds. From memory reproduce in writing, in your own words, the information thus gained.

5. Write six balanced sentences, each of which shall express a contrast between a horse and a cow.

Make each sentence as neat and concise as you can.

6. Substitute other words or phrases for those in bold type:—

The better part of **valor** is **discretion.** A general **recipe** for getting **ideas** is hardly easier to give than a recipe for being great. Ideas are **had** through new experiences, new acquaintanceships, new **sights;** through **hard thinking,** through **hard** reading,—in **short,** through living. Words are the **embalmed** ideas of men. Acquisition of ideas **furthers** acquisition of words, and **vice versa.** To some extent ideas can be **bred** by the study of

mere words. The **attempt** to **discriminate** between words that mean **nearly,** not **quite,** the same thing, results in a **distinct** gain in thought, and in power of thought. Shakespeare's **works contain** about fifteen thousand different words; the King James **version** of the Bible fewer than six thousand. To **gain** new words and new **ideas,** the student must **compel** himself to read slowly. **Impatient** to **hurry** on and **learn** how the **tale** or poem **ends,** many a youth is **accustomed** to read so **rapidly** as to miss the best part of what the author is **trying** to say. To get at the thoughts and **really** to **retain** the valuable expression, the **student** must **scrutinize** and **ponder** as he reads. Each word must be **thoroughly understood**; its **exact** value in the sentence must be **grasped.** The dictionary is not a **magic** book, ready to **explain** every **delicate** shading that a great author gives a word in a **particular** connection. In reading **silently** it is due the author to read with as much expression as if we were **pronouncing** the word **aloud.** One should mentally give **every** word and phrase its **proper** accent, should feel the **value** of every punctuation mark. Literature is **full of** words descriptive of things that all have seen or heard. (Recall two adjectives that designate things apprehended through the senses.)

7. The thirteenth chapter of First Corinthians is given below. For one lesson commit to memory the first seven verses. Practise until you can give them proper oral expression.

For another lesson do the same with the remaining six verses.

1. Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels, and have not charity, I am become as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal.

2. And though I have the gift of prophecy, and understand all mysteries, and all knowledge; and though I have all faith, so that I could remove mountains, and have not charity, I am nothing.

3. And though I bestow all my goods to feed the poor, and though I give my body to be burned, and have not charity, it profiteth me nothing.

4. Charity suffereth long, and is kind; charity envieth not; charity vaunteth not itself, is not puffed up,

5. Doth not behave itself unseemly, seeketh not her own, is not easily provoked, thinketh no evil;

6. Rejoiceth not in iniquity, but rejoiceth in the truth;

7. Beareth all things, believeth all things, hopeth all things, endureth all things.

8. Charity never faileth; but whether there be prophecies, they shall fail; whether there be tongues, they shall cease; whether there be knowledge, it shall vanish away.

9. For we know in part, and we prophesy in part.

10. But when that which is perfect is come, then that which is in part shall be done away.

11. When I was a child, I spake as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child; but when I became a man, I put away childish things.

12. For now we see through a glass, darkly; but then face to face: now I know in part; but then shall I know even as also I am known.

13. And now abideth faith, hope, charity, these three; but the greatest of these is charity.

8. Study the following passage till you firmly grasp the thought; then, in not more than half as many words, write the gist of the passage.

All real and wholesome enjoyments possible to man have been just as possible to him, since first he was made of the earth, as they are now; and they are possible to him chiefly in peace. To watch the corn grow, and the blossoms set; to draw hard breath over ploughshare or spade; to read, to think, to love, to hope, to pray,—these are the things that make men happy; they

have always had the power of doing these, they never *will* have power to do more. The world's prosperity or adversity depends upon our knowing and teaching these few things: but upon iron, or glass, or electricity, or steam, in nowise.—*Ruskin.*

9. Form adjectives from *system, define, pronoun, Hercules, compare, hero, charity, eulogy, decision, prevailing, Plato, Paul, academy, capacity, permit, Aristotle, metropolis,* and *Naples.*

10. Write a short essay,—"Guarding Our Words,"—and work into it the ideas in the following passages:

Seest thou a man that is hasty in his words? there is more hope of a fool than of him.—*Solomon.*

It is as easy to call back a stone thrown from the hand, as to call back the word that is spoken.—*Menander.*

Cast forth thy act, thy word, into the ever-living, ever-working universe; it is a seed-grain that can not die; unnoticed to-day, it will be found flourishing as a banyan grove, perhaps, alas, as a hemlock forest, after a thousand years.—*Carlyle.*

> Oh, many a shaft at random sent
> Finds mark the archer little meant,
> And many a word at random spoken
> May soothe, or wound, a heart that's broken.
>
> —*Scott.*

By thy words thou shalt be justified, and by thy words thou shalt be condemned.—*Jesus.*

11. Write a carefully-worded paragraph in explanation of the following statement. Explain briefly the word *potentially.*

An acorn contains all forests potentially.—*Shelley.*

12. The following passage is from one of Dr. Cuyler's sermons. Write a paraphrase of it, in language as nearly

literal as it can be made. Be prepared to point out orally the figures in the original.

In Great Britain no shipmaster is permitted to use an anchor which has not been tested, and stamped with a government mark. If we wish to know whether our faith has the King's mark on it, we must examine His Word. A spurious faith, full of flaws, can not be relied on in a hurricane. The metal of our faith, so to speak, must be from God's Scripture foundry. It must be lowered with entire trust upon God, and not upon ourselves. It must fasten itself to the everlasting veracity, and power, and love, of the Almighty. Every link in the chain cable is a divine promise. When in the darkest night we heave out this anchor we may wait confidently for the dawning of the day.

13. Explain the derivation of *academy*, *volcano*, *macadamize*, *calico*, *milliner*, *panic*, *epicure*, *tariff*, *sardine*, *atlas*, *hygiene*, *dahlia*, *tantalize*, and *daisy*.

14. You have just bought your first bicycle, and expect to write of it to a friend who has no interest in cycling. Tell him how much easier it was to learn to ride it than you had expected, and that you are looking forward with great pleasure to the excursions you will soon be able to make. State tersely what you think are the advantages and benefits of riding a "wheel," and thus persuade your friend to follow your example.

15. Work the following phrases into sentences: A fellow-creature; a fellow-pilgrim; a fellow-traveler; the right hand of fellowship; a fellow-citizen; as the crow flies; come off with flying colors; fly in the face of; a flying column; set on foot; on the footing of; foot it; free from; free with; free course; a free translation; free of; a friend of; a friend to.

16. Write an essay of three pages (letter size) on *Cheerfulness,* and work into it the ideas in the following quotations:—

A merry heart doeth good like a medicine.—*Solomon.*

Cheerfulness is health.—*Haliburton.*

Wondrous is the strength of cheerfulness, and its power of endurance—the cheerful man will do more in the same time, will do it better, will persevere in it longer, than the sad or sullen.—*Carlyle.*

Oh, give us the man who sings at his work.—*Ib.*

Every one must have felt that a cheerful friend is like a sunny day, which sheds its brightness on all around; and most of us can, as we choose, make of this world either a palace or a prison.—*Lubbock.*

The true source of cheerfulness is benevolence. The soul that perpetually overflows with kindness and sympathy will always be cheerful.—*Godwin.*

The habit of looking on the bright side of every event is worth more than a thousand pounds.—*Johnson.*

You find yourself refreshed by the presence of cheerful people.—*Child.*

17. After committing to memory the following passages, practise reading them till you can give them proper expression:—

In men whom men condemn as ill
I find so much of goodness still,
In men whom men pronounce divine
I find so much of sin and blot,
I hesitate to draw a line
Between the two where God has not.

—*Joaquin Miller.*

We live in deeds, not years; in thoughts, not breaths;
In feelings, not in figures on a dial.
We should count time by heart-throbs: he most lives
Who thinks most, feels the noblest, acts the best.

—*Bailey.*

Howe'er it be, it seems to me
'Tis only noble to be good:
Kind hearts are more than coronets,
And simple faith than Norman blood.
—*Tennyson.*

18. Displace the words in bold type with equivalent words or phrases:—

In every gentle and submissive way, Jesus **tried** to please those with whom He came in **contact.** Because He was so gentle and **unobtrusive**, the scribes and elders **supposed** that He would be easily influenced by their **teachings.** . . . They [rabbis] **claimed** that it was their **office** to **explain** the Scriptures, and that it was His **place** to **accept** their **interpretation.** They were indignant that He should stand **in opposition to** their word. They **knew** that no **authority** could be found in Scripture for their traditions. They **realized** that in spiritual **understanding** Jesus was far **in advance of** them. . . . "It is written" was His **reason** for every act that **varied** from the family **customs.** . . . They [His brothers] **insisted** that the traditions must be **heeded** as if they were the **requirements** of God. They even **regarded** the **precepts** of men more highly than the Word of God, and they were greatly **annoyed** at the clear **penetration** of Jesus in **distinguishing between** the false and the true.

19. Study from a dictionary the italicized words below till you fully catch their meaning. Then use them in sentences of your own. Be prepared to spell them.

(*a*) A brave retreat is a brave *exploit.*

(*b*) A *carper* can *cavil* at anything.

(*c*) A custom more honored in the *breach* than in the observance.

(*d*) He spoke in a *dogmatical* tone.
(*e*) A fault confessed is half *redressed.*
(*f*) A man never *surfeits* of too much honesty.
(*g*) *Dexterity* comes by experience.
(*h*) Faint praise is *disparagement.*
(*i*) *Temporizing* is sometimes great wisdom.
(*j*) Too much consulting *confounds.*

Find at least one synonym of *dogmatical, dexterity, disparagement, breach,* and *confounds.*

20. Write a short essay on "The Evils of Idleness," incorporating the ideas in the following passages:—

An idle brain is the devil's workshop.—*English Proverb.*

Satan finds some mischief still for idle hands to do.—*Watts.*

They that do nothing are in the readiest way to do that which is worse than nothing.—*Zimmermann.*

Idleness is the sepulcher of virtue.—*Mad. Roland.*

Idleness is the key of beggary.—*Spurgeon.*

If you are idle you are on the way to ruin, and there are few stopping-places upon it. It is rather a precipice than a road. —*Beecher.*

The way to be nothing is to do nothing.—*Howe.*

The devil tempts all other men, but idle men tempt the devil. —*Turkish Proverb.*

An idle man is like a house that hath no walls; the devils may enter on every side.—*Chaucer.*

21. By observation and reading learn all you can regarding the bee. Embody your information in the best English you can command.

22. The following adjectives apply primarily to material objects, that may be known through the senses. But each may be raised to a higher use, being made to

designate some trait of character, or some other abstract idea. Observe the various duties that the adjective *high* was persuaded into doing at the call of Shakespeare. He writes of *high* feats, *high* hope, *high* heaven, *high* exploits, *high* deeds, *high* desert, *high* perfection, *high* designs, *high* good trim, *high* descent, *high* resolve, *high* reward. Every one knows what is meant by *fine* sand, *fine* cloth, *fine* salt, etc.; but we may speak of *fine* deeds, *fine* sense of honor, *fine* courage, *fine* bearing, and so on.

Now, make each of the following adjectives modify as many abstract nouns as you think it properly can modify: *rough, bitter, insipid, smooth, soft, keen, dull, brilliant, misty, sharp, cold, sweet, sour, transparent, hazy, burning, glowing, beaming.*

23. In the following sentences substitute a short or simple word of like meaning for each word that is italicized:—

Will you *accord* him this favor?

See that the *apartment* is *ventilated.*

Such *penurious* tendencies are not to be *extirpated.*

This is to be his *domicile.*

Let there be an *interstice* between the two parts.

The *termination* of his career does not fulfil the promise of its *commencement.*

She does not speak even her *vernacular* with propriety.

You had better put an *impediment* on his rashness.

We shall have a *collation* before the ride.

To *effectuate* your purpose, get his influence.

The school-room is *palatial.*

The new training field will *enhance* athletics.

He *manipulates* the mandolin well.

The architect will make good use of all the *potentialities* of the old building.

He is to *inaugurate* the new drill to-morrow.

My companion seemed lost in his *cogitations.*

To *approximate* to such a standard, is better than to reach a lower one.

He has *precipitated* his return to this country.

The lecturer is a fine-looking *personage*, but not an interesting speaker.

This fact alone ought not to *invalidate* his argument.

Why does he take *cognizance* of mere trifles?

The *celerity* and the *dexterity* of his movements are remarkable.

The singer has a *captivating* manner.

The *mendacity* of this report is shameful.

It is a fine *locality.*

24. Write a paraphrase of—

Keep in the midst of life. Don't isolate yourself. Be among men, and among things, and among troubles, and among difficulties and obstacles. You remember Goethe's words: "Talent develops itself in solitude; character, in the stream of life."—*Drummond.*

State orally—in good English—who Goethe was. Of what well-known book is Drummond the author?

25. State in well-written English all the information you can get in regard to the "Uses of Winds." Do not neglect paragraphing.

26. Commit to memory the following quotations. Write a paraphrase of any one of them, except the first.

And I beheld when he had opened the sixth seal, and, lo, there was a great earthquake; and the sun became black as sackcloth of hair, and the moon became as blood;

And the stars of heaven fell unto the earth, even as a fig tree casteth her untimely figs, when she is shaken of a mighty wind.

And the heaven departed as a scroll when it is rolled together; and every mountain and island were moved out of their places.

And the kings of the earth, and the great men, and the rich men, and the chief captains, and the mighty men, and every bondman, and every free man, hid themselves in the dens and in the rocks of the mountains;

And said to the mountains and rocks, Fall on us, and hide us from the face of Him that sitteth on the throne, and from the wrath of the Lamb;

For the great day of His wrath is come; and who shall be able to stand? Rev. 6:12-17.

Pleasures are like poppies spread,
You seize the flower, its bloom is shed;
Or like the snow-falls in the river,
A moment white—then melts forever;
Or like the borealis race,
That flits ere you can point their place;
Or like the rainbow's lovely form
Evanishing amid the storm.

—*Burns.*

Too low they build who build beneath the stars.—*Young.*

Teach me to feel another's woe,
To hide the fault I see;
That mercy I to others show,
That mercy show to me.

—*Pope.*

'Tis an old maxim in the schools
That flattery's the food of fools;
Yet now and then your men of wit
Will condescend to take a bit.

—*Swift.*

27. Look up the etymology of the following words. Be prepared to spell and define each word: *Galvanism,*

guillotine, jovial, July, August, simony, bacchanalian, boycott, dunce, flora, fauna, meander, palace, mercurial, saturnine.

28. Make sentences containing the following phrases: Come short of; come to nothing; come to one's self; come to the front; come to blows; come to want; come of age; with an eye to; keep an eye on; have in one's eye; in the mind's eye; drop off; drop away; drop in; drop out; drop down; drop a line; drop a controversy; drop an acquaintance; drop anchor; run after; run across; run down; run out; run a risk; run amuck; run riot; run to seed; run counter to; run a blockade.

29. Explain, in the form of a carefully-written essay, how dew and frost are formed.

Determine for yourself the exact title of the essay.

30. Simplify the wording of the following phrases:—

At the expiration of five years; extreme felicity; incur the danger; a sanguinary engagement; accepted signification (of a word, etc.); exceedingly opulent; paternal sentiments; a votary of Bacchus; in this melancholy predicament; "an individual designated by the not uncommon cognomen of Smith;" the precursor of a stupendous atmospheric disturbance.

Look up the etymology of *precursor, sanguinary, melancholy,* and *cognomen.* Produce several synonyms of *opulent;* also of *precursor.*

31. Commit to memory the following passages. Learn to give them effective vocal expression.

Therefore whosoever heareth these sayings of Mine, and doeth them, I will liken him unto a wise man, which built his house upon a rock: and the rain descended, and the floods came,

and the winds blew, and beat upon that house; and it fell not: for it was founded upon a rock. And every one that heareth these sayings of Mine, and doeth them not, shall be likened unto a foolish man, which built his house upon the sand: and the rain descended, and the floods came, and the winds blew, and beat upon that house; and it fell: and great was the fall of it. Matt. 7: 24-27.

Come unto Me, all ye that labor and are heavy laden, and I will give you rest. Take My yoke upon you, and learn of Me; for I am meek and lowly in heart; and ye shall find rest unto your souls. For My yoke is easy, and My burden is light. Matt. 11: 28-30.

He that has light within his own clear breast
May sit in the center and enjoy bright day;
But he that hides a dark soul and foul thoughts
Benighted walks under the midday sun.

—*Milton.*

True worth is in being, not in seeming—
In doing, each day that goes by,
Some little good, not in the dreaming
Of great things to do by and by;
For whatever men say in their blindness,
In spite of the fancies of youth,
There is nothing so kingly as kindness,
And nothing so royal as truth.

—*Alice Cary.*

32. Write a short essay on "Kindness." Study the following quotations for their suggestiveness:—

For He [God] is kind unto the unthankful and to the evil. Luke 6: 35.

Kindness is the golden chain by which society is bound together.—*Goethe.*

Kindness is a language the dumb can speak, and the deaf can hear and understand.—*Bovee.*

It is good for us to think no grace or blessing truly ours till we are aware that God has blessed some one else with it through us.—*Phillips Brooks.*

The true and noble way to kill a foe is not to kill him; you, with kindness, may so change him that he shall cease to be a foe, and then he's slain.—*Aleyn.*

When death, the great reconciler, has come, it is never of our tenderness that we repent, but of our severity.—*George Eliot.*

The greatest thing a man can do for his Heavenly Father is to be kind to some of His other children.—*Anon.*

It is one of the beautiful compensations of life that no man can sincerely try to help another, without helping himself.—*Bailey.*

33. Substitute equivalent words and phrases for those in bold type in the following excerpt:—

Let no one then **underrate** the importance of the study of words. Daniel Webster was often seen **absorbed** in the study of an English dictionary. Lord Chatham read the folio dictionary of Bailey twice through, **examining** each word attentively, dwelling on its **peculiar import** and modes of **construction,** and thus **endeavoring** to bring the **whole range** of our language **completely** under his **control.** One of the most **distinguished** American **authors** is said to be in the habit of reading the dictionary through about once a year. His choice of **fresh** and **forceful** terms has provoked **at times** the charge of **pedantry;** but, in **fact,** he has but fearlessly used the wealth of the language that lies buried in the pages of Noah Webster. It is only by thus **working** in the **mines** of language that one can fill his storehouses of expression, so as to be **above** the necessity of using **cheap and common** words, or even using these with no **subtle** discrimination of their **meanings.** William Pinkney, the great American **advocate,** studied the English language **profoundly,** not so much to **acquaint** himself with the **nice** distinctions of its philosophical terms, as to **acquire copiousness,** variety, and **splendor** of **expression.** He

studied the dictionary, page after page, **content** with nothing less than a mastery of the **whole** language, as a **body** of expression, in its **primitive** derivative stock. Rufus Choate once said to one of his students: "You don't want a **diction gathered** from the newspapers, caught from the air, common and unsuggestive; but you want one whose every word is **full-freighted** with suggestion and association, with beauty and power."—*Wm. Mathews.*

34. Embody in sentences the following words and phrases: Brusque, pert, overweening, priggish, fish for compliments, pique one's self, opinionated, coy, sheepish, without beat of drum, vaunt, flourish of trumpets, tall talk, bombast, on stilts, in high feather, charlatan, jubilant, bravado.

35. Embody in a concisely-worded essay all the information you can get regarding the ant.

36. Write a paragraph of not fewer than seventy-five words on each of the following topics:—

(*a*) The Advantages and Disadvantages of Studying Alone.

(*b*) A Plea for Short Lessons.

(*c*) The Pleasant and the Unpleasant Features of Writing Compositions.

37. Make sentences in which the following phrases find a place: The thread of argument; poisoned words; hatch a plot; stifle a sigh; the eloquence of gold; soil a reputation; a heart of oak; to stomach an affront; struck with terror; an icy reception; to feed with hopes; the gnawing of envy; the torch of science; the reins of government.

The foregoing phrases are taken from Professor Meiklejohn's "Art of Writing English."

38. Write an amplified paraphrase of the thought in the following stanza:—

> Scepter and crown
> Must tumble down,
> And in the dust be equal made
> With the poor crooked scythe and spade.
>
> —*Shirley.*

39. Commit to memory the following passages. Amplify any one of them.

One of the illusions is that the present hour is not the critical, decisive hour. Write it on your heart that every day is the best day in the year.—*Emerson.*

Cast thy bread upon the waters, waft it on with praying breath,
In some distant, doubtful moment it may save a soul from death.
When you sleep in solemn silence, 'neath the morn and evening dew,
Stranger hands which you have strengthened may strew lilies over you.

—*Anon.*

Worldliness has been defined as looking at things that are seen, but only closely enough to see their market value. Spirituality is that further look which sees their eternal value, which realizes that

> "The earth is full of heaven,
> And every common bush afire with God.
>
> —*Drummond.*

> The quality of mercy is not strain'd;
> It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven
> Upon the place beneath: it is twice bless'd;
> It blesseth him that gives, and him that takes:
> 'Tis mightiest in the mightiest: it becomes
> The throned monarch better than his crown:

His scepter shows the force of temporal power,
The attribute to awe and majesty,
Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings;
But mercy is above this sceptered sway:
It is enthroned in the heart of kings.
It is an attribute to God himself,
And earthly power doth then show likest God's,
When mercy seasons justice.

—*Shakespeare.*

The most tremendous word in the English language is the short, yet mighty word, *No*. It has been the pivot on which innumerable destinies have turned for this world and the next. —*Cuyler.*

40. Explain in good English why points on the Pacific Coast of North America have a higher mean temperature than points in the same latitude on the Atlantic Coast.

41. Write an account of the industries and products of the Philippine Islands.

42. Write the opposite of each of these words: Permanent, pessimist, magnanimous, indigenous, synonym, antediluvian, peroration, analysis, inductive, nadir, trans-Atlantic, courage, celestial, supernal, benediction, benevolence.

43. Write a short essay on "Politeness." Work into your essay the ideas in the following passages:—

"Politeness," says Witherspoon, "is real kindness kindly expressed;" an admirable definition, and so brief that all may easily remember it. This is the sum and substance of all true politeness.

Politeness comes from within, from the heart: but if the forms of politeness are dispensed with, the spirit and the thing itself soon die away.—*John Hall.*

Politeness is good nature regulated by good sense.—*Sidney Smith.*

Politeness has been well defined as benevolence in small things.—*Macaulay.*

A polite man is one who listens with interest to things he knows all about, when they are told him by a person wh knows nothing about them.—*De Morny.*

There are two kinds of politeness; one says, "See how polite I am;" the other, "I would make you happy."—*Tomlinson.*

Great talent and success render a man famous; great merit procures respect; great learning, veneration; but politeness alone insures love and affection.

To be overpolite is to be rude.—*Japanese Proverb.*

Politeness is as natural to delicate natures as perfume is to flowers.—*De Finod.*

44. The ninety-first psalm is inserted below. Point out the figures of speech, specific terms, and the kind of sentences it contains. Commit to memory four verses of it each day until the entire psalm is fixed in the mind.

1. He that dwelleth in the secret place of the Most High shall abide under the shadow of the Almighty.

2. I will say of the Lord, He is my refuge and my fortress: my God; in Him will I trust.

3. Surely He shall deliver thee from the snare of the fowler, and from the noisome pestilence.

4. He shall cover thee with His feathers, and under His wings shalt thou trust; His truth shall be thy shield and buckler.

5. Thou shalt not be afraid for the terror by night; nor for the arrow that flieth by day;

6. Nor for the pestilence that walketh in darkness; nor for the destruction that wasteth at noonday.

7. A thousand shall fall at thy side, and ten thousand at thy right hand; but it shall not come nigh thee.

8. Only with thine eyes shalt thou behold and see the reward of the wicked.

9. Because thou hast made the Lord, which is my refuge, even the Most High, thy habitation;

10. There shall no evil befall thee, neither shall any plague come nigh thy dwelling.

11. For He shall give His angels charge over thee, to keep thee in all thy ways.

12. They shall bear thee up in their hands, lest thou dash thy foot against a stone.

13. Thou shalt tread upon the lion and adder; the young lion and the dragon shalt thou trample under feet.

14. Because he hath set his love upon Me, therefore will I deliver him; I will set him on high, because he hath known My name.

15. He shall call upon Me, and I will answer him: I will be with him in trouble; I will deliver him, and honor him.

16. With long life will I satisfy him, and show him My salvation.

45. Write the opposite of each of the following words. Be sure to learn the meaning of each: Positive, prosperity, generic, predecessor, superior, opaque, domestic, aggravate (make worse), zenith, oriental, promiscuous, maximum, absolute, magnify, repulsion, objective, homogeneous.

46. Write a paragraph of a hundred or more words on each of the following topics:—

(*a*) Errors, like straws, upon the surface flow;
He who would seek for pearls must dive below.
—*Pope.*

(*b*) Still runs the water when the brook is deep.—*Shakespeare.*

(*c*) It is almost as presumptuous to think you can do nothing as to think you can do everything.—*Brooks.*

(*d*) The course of nature is the art of God.—*Young.*

47. Write a short essay on "Reading." The following quotations will serve to suggest ideas.

Get a habit, a passion for reading; not flying from book to book, with the squeamish caprice of a literary epicure; but read systematically, closely, thoughtfully, analyzing every subject as you go along, and laying it up carefully and safely in your memory. It is only by this mode that your information will be at the same time extensive, accurate, and useful.—*W. Wirt.*

You may glean knowledge by reading, but you must separate the chaff from the wheat by thinking.—*Anon.*

It is well to read everything of something, and something of everything.—*Brougham.*

A page digested is better than a volume hurriedly read.—*Macaulay.*

We should be as careful of the books we read as of the company we keep.—*T. Edwards.*

Had I read as much as others, I had remained as ignorant as they.—*Hobbes.*

Reading maketh a full man.—*Bacon.*

Reading furnishes the mind only with materials of knowledge; it is thinking makes what we read ours.—*Locke.*

The daily study of the Scriptures will have a sanctifying influence upon the mind. You will breathe a heavenly atmosphere. Bind this precious volume to your hearts. It will prove a friend and guide in perplexity.—*Mrs. E. G. White.*

48. Embody the following phrases in sentences: Disinterested motives; with bated breath; with open arms; brow-beaten; influence over; influence with; impatient with; impatient of (a proceeding); hankering after; curry favor with; pander to; look askance; carry coals to Newcastle; bear with; bear up; bear inquiry; breach of faith; breach of promise; breach of the peace; take leave; take heed; take heart; take to heart; succeed to; succeed in; touch upon; touch at; taste of; taste for;

trespass on; trespass against; warn of; warn against; responsible for; responsible to; pursuant to; perish with; perish by; connive at; embark on; embark in; eager to; eager for; reconcile with; reconcile to; at his wits' ends.

49. Give the history and present meaning of, *sincere, bankrupt, montebank, egregious, gregarious, desultory, canard, poltroon, imbecile, caprice, right, wrong, salary, kidnap, tribulation, parlor, scrupulous, supercilious, the bitter end, pony, solecism, intoxicate, kind, prejudice, disaster, idiot, miser, dun, polite, cynical, explicate, astonish, inculcate, dilapidated, radical, cardinal, digress, attention, robust, parasol, salient, attract, cosmopolitan, automobile, ante bellum, Boer, vandalism, phonograph, psychology, recipe, kindergarten, puerile, virile, crusade, pompadour, tyro,* and *boycott.*

50. The following words are often mispronounced—some of them by persons of fair education. By consulting a good dictionary, you can determine how many of them you may be in the habit of mispronouncing.

Abjectly, abnormal, acclimated, acoustics, adhesive, admirable, adverse, adobe, aeronaut, again, aggrandizement, agriculture, ah, a la mode, alder, ally, allopathy, altercation, alternate (as an adjective; as a verb), amateur, antecedent, antepenult, apotheosis, Appalachian, apparatus, apparent, apricot, Arab, Arabic, area, armistice, Asia, aspirant, atoll, attacked, aunt, aurora borealis, bachelor, bade, banana, bay rum, bay window, Belial, benzine, biography, blasphemous, bomb, brigand, bronchitis, broth, Buddhism, Burgundy, canine, cassimere, Caucasian, contrary, chamois, chastisement, chief-justice, Christendom, cinchona, clandestine, cleanly, cloth, coad-

jutor, cockatrice, coffee, coffin, cohesive, combatant, comparable, compeer, complex, compound, component, condemning, condolence, conservator, consummate (as verb; as adjective), conversant, circuitous, communist, contumely, contour, connoisseur, coquetry, construe, casualty, coterie, coupon, courier, courteous, cowardice, creek, culinary, dahlia, damning, Danish, daub, decade, decadence, deficit, demoniacal, derisive, designate, desist, despicable, destine, didactic, digress, diploma, direct, disaster, discern, discourse, disfranchise, docile, dolorous, e'er, encore, enervate, envelope, epitome, equable, equation, etiquette, erring, European, exemplary, explicable, extol, extraordinary, exquisite, excretory, extant, exploit, favorite, finance, financier, franchise, frontier, frost, gape, gaseous, genealogy, genuine, gibbet, glacier, gladiolus, gondola, gone, gooseberry, gratis, grimace, gum-arabic, half, hasten, hearth, heinous, Herculean, heroine, herb, homeopathy, horizon, hospitable, hostage, hostile, hover, hydropathy, hydrotherapy, hypocrisy, idea, ignoramus, illustrate, imbecile, impotence, incomparable, incongruous, indisputable, indissoluble, industry, inexplicable, inquiry, integral, interesting, irate, irreparable, irrevocable, isolated, Italian, italics, jocund, juvenile, knoll, lamentable, lava, legislature, leisure, lenient, lethargic, livelong, long-lived, lyceum, magazine, maintenance, maniacal, maritime, masculine, matron, memoir, menagerie, microscopy, mischievous, morphine, moss, moths, multiplicand, nape, nasal, nepotism, nicotine, nomenclature, nothing, oasis, obligatory, off, often, opponent, ordeal, orthoepy, outsider, pageant, palaver, Palestine, panorama, path, pathos, patois, patriot, patron, patronize, patronage, peremptory,

Persian, Philistine, piano, piazza, placard, plateau, precedence, presentation, presbytery, pretence, pretty, privily, process, Prussian, puissance, raillery, recess, recourse, reputable, research, resource, revocable, robust, romance, route, routine, sachem, sacrament, sacrifice, sacrilege, salve, senile, sinecure, sleek, snout (not snoot), sojourn, squalor, steam-engine, strata, strategic, subsidence, subtile, subtle, suffice, suite, tepid, thanksgiving, thither, tiny, tirade, tomato, toward, trough, truths, tympanum, undersigned, unison, usurp, vagary, vehement, verbose, vicar, vindicative, water, withe, wrath, wreaths, wrong, zoology, zoophyte.

51. Thoroughly study the following words with reference to both their etymology and present meaning. Employ some of them in original sentences. Microbe, shrapnel, sloyd, cuisine, propaganda, flotilla, dowager, ritualism, naive, utilitarian, amateur, expansionist, imperialist, iconoclast, pecuniary, feudalism, corrugated, syndicate, pyrotechnics, reciprocity, antiseptic, minimize, sanitarium, maudlin, paragon, bibliography, Pan-American, Mauser, plutocracy, fin-de-siècle, kopje, veldt, Lyddite, subsidy, volt, statistician, ecumenical, liturgy, idealist, realistic, lithograph, itinerary, mimeograph, locomobile, megaphone, graphophone, insurgent, correlated, socialist, folklore, idiosyncrasy, eleemosynary, surreptitious, massage, concept, percept, caricature, incubator, environment, epitome, palmistry, paraphernalia, insurgent, indemnity, cumulative, hegira, journalism, gymnasium, syllabus, Renaissance, heredity, collaboration, boatswain, coxswain, technique, and Pharisaism.

INDEX.

Words in italics are discussed, in the text, as words.